DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 291 878	CE 049 506
TITLE	Continuing Education in Asia and the Pacific. Bulletin of the Unesco Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific. Number 28.
INSTITUTION	United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, Bangkok (Thailand). Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific.
PUB DATE	Sep 87
NOTE	207p.
AVAILABLE FROM	UNIPUB, 4611-F Assembly Drive, Lanham, MD 20706-4391.
PUB TYPE	Collected Works - Serials (022) -- Reports - Research/Technical (143)
JOURNAL CIT	Bulletin of the Unesco Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific; n28 Sep 1987
EDRS PRICE	MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS	Adult Basic Education; Case Studies; *Continuing Education; Delivery Systems; *Developed Nations; *Developing Nations; Educational Planning; Foreign Countries; *Government Role; Nonformal Education; Postsecondary Education; Program Development; *Teacher Education
IDENTIFIERS	*Asia; Australia; Japan; *Pacific Region; Philippines; Sri Lanka

ABSTRACT

This bulletin issue contains articles and observations about continuing education for adults in various countries of Asia and the Pacific. Articles from five experts in continuing education and/or related areas in four countries in the region make up the first section. The experts are from (1) Sri Lanka (D. A. Perera); (2) Australia (Geoffrey Caldwell); (3) Japan (Kazufusa Moro'oka); and (4) the Philippines (William S. Griffith, Remigio P. Romulo). Section II presents regional overviews of various aspects of continuing education, based on existing literature on the subject. The following aspects of continuing education are covered: terminologies; policies and plans; educational organization and the role of government and nongovernment organizations; delivery systems and teacher education; linkages between formal and nonformal education and between school and work; and government resources. Section III provides a practical blueprint for planning a major program of continuing education; it includes two case studies of continuing education programs. A bibliography of works on continuing education makes up Section IV. (KC)

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BULLETIN

OF THE UNESCO PRINCIPAL REGIONAL OFFICE FOR ASIA AND THE PACIFIC

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CONTINUING EDUCATION

IN ASIA AND THE PACIFIC

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'Continuing education in Asia and the Pacific', *Bulletin of the Unesco Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific* (28):1-88, 1-49, 1-24, September 1987.

Bibliography: p. i-xviii.

1. LIFELONG EDUCATION – ASIA/PACIFIC. 2. EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT – ASIA/PACIFIC. I. Unesco. Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific.

374.014

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BULLETIN

OF THE UNESCO PRINCIPAL REGIONAL OFFICE FOR ASIA AND THE PACIFIC

CONTINUING EDUCATION

IN ASIA AND THE PACIFIC

NUMBER 28 • SEPTEMBER 1987

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Published by the
Unesco Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific
P.O. Box 1425
General Post Office
Bangkok 10501, Thailand

Printed in Thailand

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BKR/87/M/385-3400

*Bulletin of the UNESCO Principal
Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific
Number 28, September 1987*

INTRODUCTION

Continuing education: existing definition

In Asia and the Pacific, the term continuing education is currently used to refer to several inter-related concepts, including adult education, non-formal education, lifelong education, recurrent education, and community education. Its usage in the region has rarely been consistent, thus causing some confusion among practitioners, planners and theoreticians. The inclusion of continuing education as one of the three components of the recently launched Asian and Pacific Education for All (APPEAL) in February 1987, suggests the anticipated popular use of the term in future. There is therefore an increasingly urgent need to formulate a comprehensive definition of continuing education.

Traditionally, the term continuing education, as used in such countries as Australia, Japan, and New Zealand refers to the 'liberal arts' tradition. It involves hobby, crafts, and leisure activities. It can also refer to highly specialized, professional training. Based on UNESCO discussions in 1982 of various continuing education activities in the developing countries, such activities may be defined as follows:

> Activities which help people improve their abilities, skills and competence, professional as well as vocational, thus facilitate entry into advanced specialized areas and/or which allow personal development and satisfaction.
>
> (Adopted from Smith, 1986)

In many developing countries in the region, however, continuing education is considered synonymous with non-formal education.

In the developing countries in Asia and the Pacific, including Afghanistan, Bangladesh, China, India, Indonesia, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, and Thailand, the following definition may be considered to synthesize the meanings of various selected terms which fit into the scope of continuing education, including out-of-school education, adult education, and non-formal education.

> Out-of-school education, for the masses who missed an opportunity for formal education, includes imparting knowledge, skills, attitudes and values, including basic literacy and vocational skills, as well as the inculcation of awareness. Continuing education is expected to help respond to the individual's needs for social and productive development.
>
> (UNESCO, 1982)

Subjects dealing with the inculcation of awareness usually include health and nutrition, family planning, civics, and other topics considered necessary for most developing countries, where the majority of the population live in the rural areas.

Continuing education appears to refer to at least two quite distinct categories of education: highly specialized professional training and liberal arts education, on the one hand, and more basic education for survival for millions of the population in the developing region of Asia and the Pacific.

Towards a holistic approach to 'continuing education'

Based on the foregoing discussion, continuing education activities can be roughly categorized according to the level of development of specific countries. In the developed countries in the region continuing education focuses on self-development and fulfilment, news and information dissemination, leisure and the promotion of culture, including music, dance, handicraft, and cuisine. Highly specialized training or retraining in emerging professions, such as those related to computer work, is also provided. The provision of reading materials through newspapers and the mass media is one of the most popular tools in continuing education. Continuing education in the developed countries is often carried out by private enterprises which charge fees for their services, as is the practice in Australia and Japan.

In the developing countries of Asia and the Pacific, where illiteracy is still a cause for concern,[1] continuing education is first and foremost a 'second opportunity for education'. It is a substitute or alternative to formal education, i.e. from the primary level and higher, which some people might have missed due to socio-economic, and cultural reasons and other factors. It almost always includes literacy education for both the illiterate and semi-literate. Other skills which are essential to everyday life in a fast changing world are also included. These skills are in the areas of health and nutrition, mother and child-care, family planning, and vocational occupations. An example is the renown 'agro-technology' training in China and tailoring in India and Malaysia. Some countries also emphasise awareness, particularly civic awareness, as in the case of China, Indonesia and the Philippines. Clearly all these skills are essential pre-requisites to personal as well as community development.

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[1] For illiteracy rates of the developing countries in Asia and the Pacific, see Annex I.

In most developing countries in the region, 80 per cent of the population live in the rural areas. Therefore, continuing education in these countries is mostly provided for the rural population. Since more than 60 per cent of the illiterate population in the rural areas are women, a large percentage of the beneficiaries of the continuing education programmes in the developing countries are women.

Although the concepts of continuing education may be broadly categorized according to the level of development of specific countries, such a basis is by no means definitive. As the developed countries in the region begin to recognize the existence of pockets of population which suffer from a high rate of illiteracy,[2] they have initiated literacy programmes for adults. These programmes are in many ways similar to those in the advanced countries. On the other hand, as some of the less developed countries in the region successfully manage to eradicate illiteracy,[3] the need for a different thrust in continuing education emerges. The needs of such countries are slowly shifting towards those which are traditionally identified with the developed countries, including the need for highly specialized training, short courses for personal development, and recreation, as for example, the acquisition of an artistic sense and the development of reading habits. There is now a growing tendency among developing countries, including those with high illiteracy rate, to provide training in highly specialized areas while also paying increased attention to the promotion of rest and recreation. It appears, therefore, that the developed and developing countries are gradually sharing

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2. An example in Australia where the rate of illiteracy, according to various sources, seems to fall within the range of 3.7 – 10 per cent.

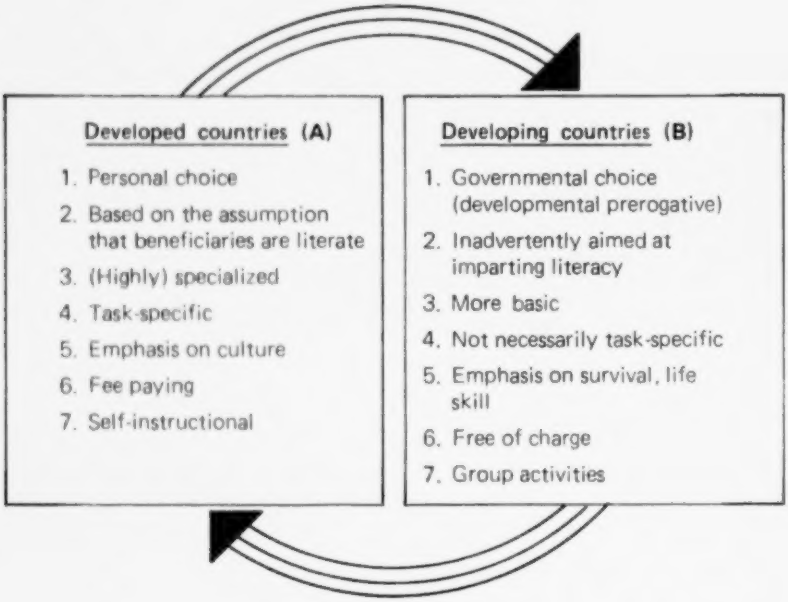
3. An example of such countries is Thailand, which after successful completion of literacy campaign, has raised its literacy rate to over 90 per cent.

their needs, and consequently the differences between their types of continuing education are being reduced.

Figure 1 illustrates the inter-relationship among various areas of continuing education.

The two boxes A and B summarize the characteristics of the types of continuing education practised in the developed and developing countries in the region.

Figure 1



Developed countries (A)	**Developing countries (B)**
1. Personal choice	1. Governmental choice (developmental prerogative)
2. Based on the assumption that beneficiaries are literate	2. Inadvertently aimed at imparting literacy
3. (Highly) specialized	3. More basic
4. Task-specific	4. Not necessarily task-specific
5. Emphasis on culture	5. Emphasis on survival, life skill
6. Fee paying	6. Free of charge
7. Self-instructional	7. Group activities

The first arrow indicates a tendency by certain developed countries to incorporate in their own programmes some of the characteristics of the type of continuing education found in the developing countries. In the same vein, the second arrow suggests that some developing countries may be incorporating certain characteristics of the type of continuing education practised in the developed countries. As experienced by the countries in the region, this fluid inter-relationship is constant and is consistent with the continuous state of flux which characterizes the very definition of the term continuing education.

Whether continuing education as practised in any one country, falls into one group or the other, either way it is aimed at "bringing about socially desirable changes". (Perera 1987, Johnson and Hinton 1986).

As the characteristics of continuing education in the developing and developed countries in the region become similar, there emerges a need for a global means of continuing education. In this case, tackling both types of continuing education may involve integral composites of lifelong education. Both reflect the philosophy that learning is a lifelong, dynamic and continuous process.

In this issue

The Asia and Pacific Programme of Education for All (APPEAL), which aims at illiteracy eradication by the year 2000, has as its components: illiteracy eradication, the universalization of primary education, and continuing education. While the significance of continuing education is increasingly accepted as a sine-qua-non for permanent literacy and other aspects of lifelong education, its very state of flux requires its close scrutiny.

While the definition and scope of continuing education, as applied across the region, slowly take shape, it was considered appropriate to invite contributions reflecting current thinking and practice in the region. Articles from four experts in continuing education and/or related areas in four countries in the region make up the first section of this ***Bulletin***. The experts are from Australia, Japan, The Philippines, and Sri Lanka. While Australia represents the Pacific, Japan represents the developed countries in the region. Philippines represents Southeast Asia and Sri Lanka, South Asia.

Perera attempts to provide a basic conceptual framework for discussing continuing education, based on the practices in some Asian countries. Continuing education, asserts Perera, is both a process and a system. As a process, it lasts throughout the life span of an individual and yields some socially desirable knowledge, skills, and attitudes. As a system, Perera views continuing education as an intimate relationship between an individual's yearning for self-development and self-fulfilment and the goal to play a part in the society. Indeed, lifelong learning and continuing education are closely intertwined, with the latter recurring at different intervals in an individual's life. Continuing education, according to Perera, is embedded in lifelong education.

Perera also views continuing education within the framework of APPEAL. He considers continuing education a supportive programme of both UPE and literacy programmes. Without continuing education, there is no education for all. At the same time, the author is mindful of another type of continuing education beyond UPE and literacy. He adds that as continuing education is a complex and fluid field, it needs to be and must be constantly redefined.

Caldwell asserts that continuing education is not in addition to education received at childhood, but is a development from childhood education. The types of activities discussed by Caldwell seem to fall under the second type of continuing education presented by Perera. Caldwell speaks of continuing education that is practised in a developed country, based on a western tradition of education. In this context continuing education involves tertiary educational institutions.

While Caldwell cautions that it might be too early to pose any hypothesis, he proposes a set of relationships between the level of a country's economic advancement and its emphasis on aspects of non-formal or continuing education, i.e., remedial, developmental, substitute, and alternative.

In Caldwell's article, a description of continuing education as practised in Australia is also discussed.

Griffith and Romulo describe the development of continuing education in the Philippines through the nation's history, dating back to the Spanish and American occupation. Training for adults ranks very high in the country's educational priorities. Value education emphasising a sense of nationhood, the family as a central unit, and the ***bayanihan*** spirit, which stresses tradition, authority personalism, sympathy, family ties, interdependence, and harmony rather than autonomy and individualism, are promoted.

Throughout the country's history, the elimination of illiteracy and the provision of vocational and citizenship training for adults have been major concerns in adult education. Griffith and Romulo discuss various legislative acts related to adult and continuing education. The 1985 Annual Report of the Department of Continuing Education specifies its directives to include mass implementation of literacy programmes and the development of a productive and self-reliant citizenry. The implementation mechanism is also briefly discussed.

Griffith and Romulo also point out that continuing education is now being co-ordinated with other sectors in undertaking such tasks as locating and identifying sources of raw materials, the marketing of products, and the training of personnel to promote income-generating work. They also quote the policy of the Philippine Government, and the new Constitution which states that non-formal and informal education and indigenous learning will be used as means to provide training to adult citizens, the disabled, and out-of-school youth, in civics and vocational skills, among others. The rural population is clearly a priority group.

Moro'oka discusses the Japanese approach to continuing education which includes out-of-school education for youth, as well as adult education in various forms. He discusses the Social Education Law which provides certain standards for continuing education in Japan. In his paper, "Continuing Education – The Japanese Approach", Moro'oka discusses the distinction between 'continuing' and 'continuous' education. He presents a historical development of the Japanese modern education and describes the provision of continuing education within the formal system, as for example, general courses in technical and vocational training. In contrast, Moro'oka describes in detail another way of providing continuing education which, he says, happens "when learners want to learn something spontaneously". The recognition of this pre-requisite of 'continuous education' prompted the 1949 Social Education Law which states that the national and local governmental agencies are to promote and support an environment conducive to the cultural enhancement of all members of society. The Japanese Government's commitment to promoting continuous education is reflected in the 1971 report on ***Social education in rapidly changing society.*** This report recommends the following:

1. Broadening of the concept of social education;
2. Systematisation of social education from the viewpoint of lifelong education;
3. Improvement of educational control and methods of meeting a variety of changing demands;

4. Promotion of organized activities and voluntary activities;
5. Emphasis on social education administration.

In Japan social education is carried out in various ways. Moro'oka gives some examples.

Social education in Japan is a result of the recognition that the Japanese society is a service-oriented economy. Never has the Japanese society's need for educated manpower been as great as it is today. Participation in continuing education has also been fostered by the modern conveniences enjoyed by the Japanese people.

Section II of the ***Bulletin*** presents regional overviews of various aspects of continuing education, based on existing literature on the subject. The following aspects of continuing education are covered in the papers:

1. The concept of continuing education in different contexts and a variety of terminologies that refer to continuing education.
2. Policies and plans of continuing education within the framework of overall education and socio-economic plans.
3. Organization and management of continuing education and the role of government and non-government organizations and educational institutes at various levels.
4. Delivery mechanisms, curricula, teaching/learning materials, and teachers' training.
5. Linkages between formal and non-formal education and between education and work through continuing education.
6. Government resources for continuing education.

Section III provides a practical blueprint for planning a major programme of continuing education. In this blueprint, John Wellings presents some theoretical discussions on the definition of continuing education, clarifying its difference from non-formal education and adult education. With this as background, he proceeds to describe the seven steps to be followed in planning the programme, namely: (a) identification of target groups; (b) assessment of the learner's needs; (c) development of objectives; (d) development of the plan; (e) development of curriculum and selection of training methods; (f) management of the programme and budget; and (g) evaluation.

He also discusses other important factors which need to be taken into consideration when planning a continuing education programme. These include the determination of needs and roles of government, schools and non-government agencies. He stresses the alternative mechanisms for co-ordinating the programme because of the many different agencies involved in providing continuing education. Finally, the issue of evaluation focussing on its formal process is taken up. Two case studies of programme design in continuing education are presented. One is on a continuing education programme related to dysentery control, while the other is on determining the needs of a population education programme.

Future thrusts of continuing education in Asia and the Pacific towards the year 2000

Across the region, there is growing recognition of the mass media's tremendous contribution, both potential and actual, to the provision of continuing education. Another significant trend is the growing use of communication technology in information storage, processing, and retrieval, and consequently the greater role it will play in the future in all areas of continuing education.

The Asia and Pacific Programme of Education for All (APPEAL) has as its major goal the provision of education for all by the year 2000. One thing is clear. There will not be education for all, if serious efforts are not made to improve the provision of continuing education for women, particularly those who are illiterate. These women need to be functionally, as well as legally, literate. In addition, occupational opportunities in vocations traditionally considered inappropriate for women should now be extended to them.

Within the framework of APPEAL, several activities are being carried out to provide continuing education for women. These activities range from basic education, such as literacy campaigns and/or upgrading of vocational skills as well as education to improve the basic quality of life. This includes health and nutrition, family planning, child-rearing, and the promotion of social and civic awareness. In this connection, UNESCO organizes regional workshops on the topic of improving the quality of life, to identify problems and issues and find practical solutions. Co-operation is also extended to Member States in setting up operational, grassroots level activities in the field of teacher training and in continuing education itself.

Further assistance, such as setting up modest revolving funds to enable women to actually apply their newly acquired knowledge, is also provided. UNESCO and its Member States are also reinforcing their efforts in related materials development.

Plans are underway to eliminate sex biases and discriminations, including those suggested in traditional textbooks, among other materials.

Furthermore, special care is taken to support women in distress, including those who are prisoners and prostitutes, by providing them vocational and civic training. The growing number of women in the labour force suggests the need to improve the situation of working mothers, particularly their role in parental education. Such improvements will encourage males to assume equal responsibility in child-care and housekeeping.

In addition to specially designed programmes for women, UNESCO provides continuing education for both men and women in several areas, notably in technical and vocational education, planning and development, social and human sciences, instructional development, training of education personnel, general information services, educational facilities, and through the UNESCO-UNICEF co-operation programme.

Anticipated needs in the area of vocational skills training include the following:

1. To understand the general implication of technological change, its impact on the private lives of individuals and how to cope with such impact;
2. To use practical skills to improve the home and community environment and the quality of life and, where appropriate, to promote productive leisure activities.

In planning and development, greater use of the mass media for instructional purposes is expected. Employment patterns, such as the shift from full-time to part-time employment, as well as the availability of electronic appliances, suggest more free time for individuals and their easy access to continuing education through the mass media. In connection with this development, both formal and non-formal systems of education can optimize their use of the mass media. A clear implication is the increased need to co-ordinate between the formal and non-formal systems of education, such that intensive sharing of resources and facilities, even methodology, will be required. This will also mean the potential elimination of the demarcation line between the formal and non-formal systems of education.

The need for training to enable people to cope with the phenomenon of information explosion is also evident in UNESCO's Social and Human Sciences Sector. Focus will be placed on training in mathematics and higher forms of statistics, computeracy and the post-industrial society and the information revolution.

A great deal needs to be done concerning educational facilities as most continuing education programmes are carried out in temporary borrowed sites. UNESCO is studying the ways and means by which different countries have accommodated these activities. A consequent development will be one or several Educational Building Digests, which will discuss basic ideas concerning the use of borrowed space and the design of special facilities that may be required.

As technology continues to advance, conditions and constraints related to continuing education, like the definition of continuing education, will change accordingly. The influx and invention of modern equipment, such as computers and satellites, and the advent communication technologies might well render the traditional practice of continuing education obsolete. Greater reliance on communication technologies that provide instant access to information may require that continuing education concentrate on computer literacy and similar areas. UNESCO's general information programme services assist in raising public consciousness and awareness of the significance of making information in many fields of interest available. As individuals see the effects and value of information in their daily lives, they become more capable of meeting life and its varying demands. They start to recognize the emergence of new opportunities, become more at ease in handling problem situations, and consequently enjoy life better as a whole. If all these can be accomplished, then 'education for all' has achieved its goal.

Annex I

Illiteracy rates of the developing countries in Asia and the Pacific

	Total	Male	Female
East Asia			
China	30.7	17.6	44.5
South-East Asia			
Burma	29.0	15.9	41.7
Indonesia	25.9	17.0	34.6
Lao People's Democratic Republic	16.1	8.0	24.2
Malaysia	26.6	19.1	44.0
Philippines	14.3	14.0	14.6
Thailand	9.0	5.8	12.2
Viet Nam	16.0	9.5	21.7
South Asia and Turkey			
Afghanistan	76.3	61.1	92.2
Bangladesh	66.9	56.7	77.8
Bhutan	. .	. .	. .
India	56.5	42.8	74.8
Islamic Republic of Iran	49.2	37.7	61.0
Maldives	17.6	17.5	17.7
Nepal	74.4	61.3	88.1
Pakistan	70.4	60.1	81.4
Sri Lanka	12.9	8.8	17.3
Pacific			
Fiji	14.5	9.8	19.1
Papua New Guinea	44.5	45.2	64.7

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SECTION ONE

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR CONTINUING EDUCATION IN ASIA AND THE PACIFIC

CONTINUING EDUCATION – CONCEPT AND SYSTEM: AN INTRODUCTION

by D.A. Perera

Mr. D.A. Perera is at present the Chief Adviser, Ministry of Education, Sri Lanka in charge of the Curriculum Development and Teacher Education Division of the Ministry and the Director-General of the recently established National Institute of Education. Prior to joining the Ministry in 1984, Mr. Perera served as the Senior Research Specialist in the UNESCO Institute for Education, Hamburg from 1981 to 1983, as the Director of the Development Education Institute of the Sarvodaya Sangamaya, Sri Lanka from 1979 to 1981, and as a Consultant in Practical Arts Curriculum Development to EDPITAF of the Philippines from 1977 to 1978.

Bulletin of the UNESCO Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific

Number 28
September 1987

Introduction

Countries of the Asian region have a long history of education going back several centuries. This history also includes a few centuries of colonial rule, which have left certain systems of education as legacies. Despite the efforts made by many countries, this legacy still continues to dominate the educational scene. History cannot be re-written or wished away or forgotten. The reality has to be recognized. Jayasuriya in his analysis of third world education states that, 'It is crucial, therefore, that the third world countries decide firmly to eschew the educational models of the industrialized countries that have been millstones round their necks, and undertake a serious effort to devise models that really meet their needs' (Jayasuriya, 1981).

A study of continuing education may provide the impetus for such a 'serious effort to devise models' which really meet the needs of the developing countries of the region. This paper provides only a starting point for developing appropriate models. It is not envisaged that one single appropriate model would be developed. Each country is unique and needs to develop models for itself. This paper presents a few common characteristics of a system of continuing education and gives examples of some practices from the Asian region which give considerable hope for the future. This paper also indicates that adequate insights are already available with respect to some very significant dimensions of a system of continuing education. The stage is perhaps now set, not so much for analysis, research and discussions but for application and synthesis.

A concept of continuing education

Education as a process and as a system. During the last two decades, many terms have arisen in the education field to denote apparently new ways, or at least modified ways, of thinking about education. It is unlikely that such new terms will cease to arise. Education is a very complex field and as new generations of human beings come to think about a field so intimately connected with the development, and now even the survival, of the human race itself, new ideas are bound to arise. Such diversity is to be expected and welcomed. It cannot be the case that in so complex a field, a concept or an idea can remain unchanged in the context of all the other changes which are taking place at an ever increasing pace.

'Continuing' education is one such term; some other related terms being 'lifelong' education, 'recurrent' education, 'further' education, 'adult' education, 'literacy', 'post-literacy and continuing' education and 'open' education. Education itself has several meanings and it would be useful to examine some of them. One class of meanings regards education as a process, or through-put which has some lasting effect on persons.

> This learning-centred view of education obliges us to start our analysis with the clients and their needs before moving on to consider alternative means for meeting these needs. It obliges us to recognize that education by its very nature is a continuing process, starting from earliest infancy through adulthood that necessarily entails a variety of methods and sources of learning (Coombs et al, 1973).

In this view, education is a process in which learning is a central component. The authors continue in this vein referring to informal education as a 'truly lifelong process' and 'non-formal education as any organized activity outside the established formal system'. But they state that, 'By formal education we refer, of course, to the hierarchically structured, chronologically graded "educational system", running from primary school through the university . . .'. It is clear that education connotes both 'process' and 'system'. When one is concerned with an individual what is more pertinent is perhaps 'process'. When groups of individuals are the concern, 'system' forces itself upon us. It is the system which enables the participant individuals to engage in processes. This 'system', 'process' duality has other nuances as shown by the following statements by Suchodolski.

> If we look more closely at education, we shall see that it functions at two levels. First, there is what society expects from the rising generation, who will have to take over the social and occupational functions of their predecessors, and, second there is what constitutes the inner worth and richness of the personality. These two functions of education do not always coincide, sometimes they are very much at variance . . . Thus, the idea that everybody should learn for society, with a view to taking up a profession or occupation and playing a part in public life, must be complemented by the idea that everybody should learn for himself, with a view to his own development and self-fulfilment (Suchodolski in Mialeret, 1979).

It would be ideal if 'playing a part in public life' is a part of the self-fulfilment and self-development. But as Suchodolski asserts they may be at variance. Suchodolski's statements look at education from the perspective of what it is expected to do i.e. as an output. Coombs and others, when they refer to informal and non-formal education as processes are focusing on what is happening in the name of education. Reference to education as a system draws attention to organizational aspects arising from the fact that education involves not only individuals as individuals with their need for self-fulfilment and self-development but also groups of individuals who should be enabled to perform their public roles. Figure 1 attempts to relate these different aspects.

The continuous lines denote a system and broken lines indicate the life experiences of the individual. Ideally every individual during some part of his life cycle should be a participant in a system. It may also be the case that an individual may need to participate in more than one such system during the individual's lifetime. Such participation may be simultaneous or overlapping or consecutive.

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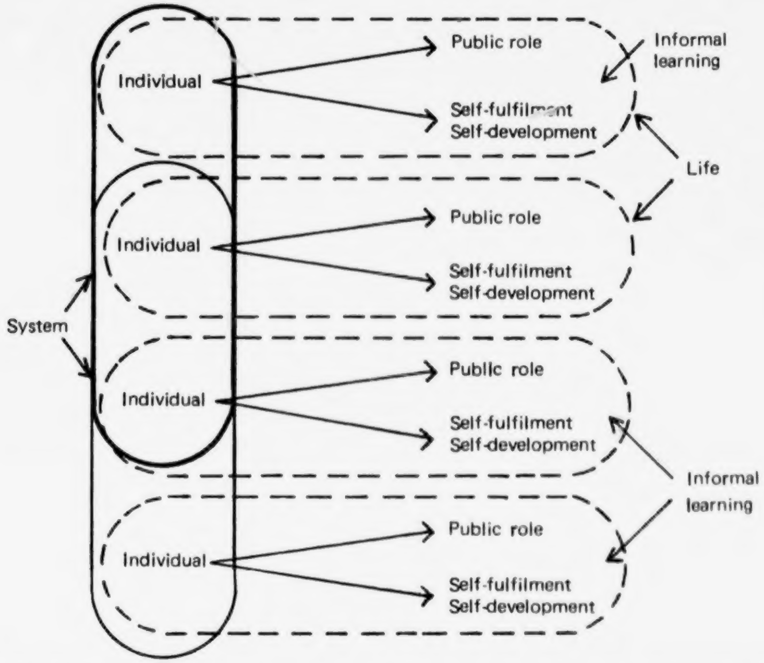
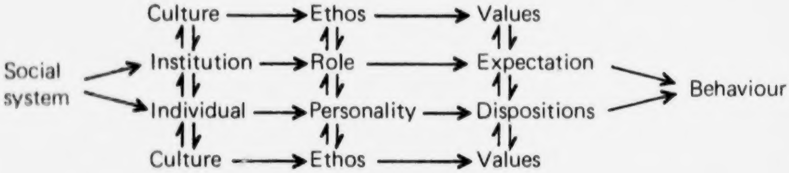
Figure 1. Life, education system and individual


Individual
Public role
Self-fulfilment
Self-development
Informal learning
Life
Individual
Public role
Self-fulfilment
Self-development
System
Individual
Public role
Self-fulfilment
Self-development
Informal learning
Individual
Public role
Self-fulfilment
Self-development

Participation in a designated system may be compulsory as is implied by the concept of universal primary education. Beyond a certain age participation may be voluntary. Education as a system is a social strategy to ensure that all individuals have an adequate choice of such environments at different periods of their life span.

Continuing education as a process. It appears as if education as a process may be taken as continuous throughout the lifespan of an individual. The individual may spend his/her life in different environments some of which may be specialized and designed specially to facilitate the acquisition of certain knowledge, skills and attitudes. But what processes are taking place? Is continuing education simply a synonym for continuing learning? Education as a process, however, cannot be divorced from the output of such a process. Normally it is not said that pickpockets are being educated. Pickpockets certainly learn, and apparently learn well. They may even attend 'school'. But they are not being educated. Education as a process, therefore, has to have associated with it, that the outcome of this process is the acquisition by the individual of socially desirable knowledge, skills and attitudes. With this sense attached to it, continuing education as a process may not be continuous throughout the life of an individual though learning would undoubtedly be. Hence it may be impossible to provide continuing education. It is possible to conceive of continuing education as a process, though it may be practically impossible to achieve it.

Continuing education as a system. What meaning could be attached to continuing education as a system? A framework for the analysis of a social system given by Getzel is very useful in trying to find an answer. (Getzel, 1963 in Gardner, et al, 1975).



What Getzel means by an institution is as follows. 'The term institution has received a variety of definitions. Here it is sufficient to point out that all social systems, and surely educational systems have certain imperative functions that come in time to be carried out in certain routinized patterns. These functions and patterns are said to be "institutionalized," and the agencies for carrying out these functions and patterns are termed institutions'. The dynamic aspects of a system where what Getzel calls the normative and personal dimensions of behaviour interact, is clearly illustrated in the above diagram. Continuing education as a part of a social system, therefore implies the participation of individuals in 'institutions' resulting in a certain behaviour. The institutions could be the schools, colleges, universities or polytechnics of the formal education system or those belonging to the non-formal system. Getzel asserts that to the extent that there is a high correlation between the values of the institute, expectations and resulting behaviour the institute is effective. To the extent that there is a high correlation between values of the individual, his dispositions and resulting behaviour the institute is efficient.

The above framework may be applied to both the formal and non-formal systems with perhaps the distinction that institutes of the non-formal system may not be that stable or fixed in space. It is therefore possible to conceive the total educational provision (as a system) in a given country as comprising a system of institutes I_1, I_2, I_3, etc., resulting in a set of behaviours B_1, B_2, B_3, etc. Institutes vary with respect to the culture in which they are embedded, their ethos and their values, while the individuals who participate in them bring with them their own individual dispositions and values. It is their dynamic interaction which produces the behaviour. It cannot be expected that B_1 would be the same for all individuals participating in I_1. B_1 can be expected to be different for different individuals because each individual has his/her own individual cultural background values and disposition. But it could be expected that there are certain common elements and this may be represented by B_1, B_2, etc.

From what has been stated previously, an individual is expected to discharge a public role while at the same time catering to his/her self-development and self-fulfilment. Such an expectation may, ideally be realized by the individual participating in a set of institutes I_1, I_2, etc., and acquiring a set of behaviours B_1, B_2, etc. The discharging of the public role and catering to self-development and self-fulfilment may require that the individual participate in more than one institute. Relevant questions which, therefore, arise are the following.

Are there an adequate number of institutes?
Do individuals have adequate access to them?
To what degree are they effective and efficient?

Continuing education as a system must, in the first instance, imply the existence or creation of a set of institutes with rules and regulations to govern the entry and exit from the set. 'Continuing' has the connotation that it is not a one-shot affair, not just one single intervention or episode in ones life. Acquisition of a given set of behaviours B_1, B_2, B_3, etc., must take place over a period of time. Acquisition of one set may be a pre-requisite or essential for the acquisition of another. It may also be the case that a particular set is not attainable until one has reached a particular age or met some other particular requirement. Also society may stipulate that the acquisition of a particular set is essential for all as is implied by UPE. The foregoing should be true of any education system. Are there any special features which may characterize a continuing education system?

The Asia-Pacific Programme of Education for All (APPEAL) refers to continuing education as follows: 'Continuing education may be divided into two main categories. Firstly, continuing education is a programme supportive of UPE and literacy programmes . . . Secondly there is that type of continuing education which goes beyond UPE and literacy' (UNESCO APPEAL, p. 41).

According to the report the objectives of continuing education for development are to:

a) Provide continuing learning opportunities to children, youth and adults to follow up initial education whether obtained through primary education or through adult literacy classes, and

b) Enable them to apply their learning to the development of their own personal life and of their community.

It would appear that there is an 'initial education' and continuing education comes afterwards. Continuing education is expected to both support the initial education as well as enable an application of the learning acquired during initial education. In most other documents where 'continuing education' is used the necessity for an initial phase is evident. It would appear, therefore, that one essential characteristic of a continuing education system is the existence of a set of institutes to at least one of which everyone has access; and having exited from one or more such institutes, the possibility exists of entering other sets. In a system of continuing education, therefore, it should be possible to identify a set of institutes which provide this initial phase and another set of institutes which provide the possibilities for subsequent phases. Ideally everyone should have access to the set of institutes providing the initial phase and there should be a sufficient variety of institutes to cater to all during subsequent phases.

The availability of an initial phase for all does not necessarily imply that each person acquires the same set of knowledge, skills and attitudes during the initial phase. As pointed out earlier, even the participation in the same institutes does not ensure that the end behaviour is the same for all the participants. It has to vary from individual to individual but a given institute may be characterized by a common core which it is attempting to generate in each of the individuals participating in the institute. Hence where a particular individual is concerned, a system of continuing education should enable him/her to acquire, through participating in one or more institutes, a certain quantum of knowledge, skills and attitudes which is adequate to enable him/her to enter other institutes and acquire the knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary to perform a public role and meet the needs for self-development and self-fulfilment. In other words after the acquisition of the initial knowledge, skills and attitudes, a system of continuing education should provide for entry into various other institutes according to the needs and wishes of the individual. Since, as stated above, the initial level of acquisition is bound to vary, this implies that either the entry requirements of institutes at the next phase should be very flexible or that there should be a sufficient variety of institutes to cater to the varying output levels of the initial phase. An alternative arrangement is possible. A minimum knowledge, skills and attitudes may be stipulated for all. The manner of acquiring this minimum may be different for different people. Some may take longer than others. Some may find it necessary to attend only one institute. Others may find it necessary to attend several. But the general strategy would be to have a mix of institutes which would enable everyone to acquire this minimum.

The efficiency of the system could be measured by the proportion of the expected population who have actually acquired this minimum. Literacy skills appear to be the specification of such a minimum. Hence the educational provision for this initial phase is governed mainly by the consideration that everyone designated should acquire this minimum. For this phase there is no major consideration of the public role which everyone at some time or other is expected to play. The nature and distribution of the institutes to be provided are governed by the consideration that people are different, have different cultural backgrounds, have different personalities and dispositions, learn at different rates, learn in different ways, are in different places, have access to different resources in their private life but are all expected to acquire a certain minimum necessary to enter various institutes in the next phase.

Entering a subsequent phase is an essential characteristic of a continuing education system. The major design consideration for the subsequent phase would be the public roles which individuals are expected to play. Contrasting the public role with self-development and self-fulfilment and considering that the concern is with national systems of education, it is necessary to interpret the public role very broadly. Vocational roles are a part of the public roles. The acquisition of knowledge, skills and attitudes for vocational roles may be partly the responsibility of different institutes and partly that of the places of work themselves. The particular mix of vocational roles a country has is not determined so much by educational considerations as by economic, political and social ones. The institutes with some responsibility for the development of the knowledge, skills and attitudes have to be responsive to emerging needs if they are to maintain their level of efficiency. But apart from these vocational roles, there are roles such as father, mother, elder which are generally confined to the family circle but which nevertheless are critical for the society as a whole and hence may be brought under the category of public roles.

It could be argued that these roles are catered to rather through informal learning than through participation in institutes whether formal or non-formal. But an increasingly complex society, a more and more sophisticated style of life, a communication technology which is breaking down barriers of distance and time, a vastly increased potential for learning by oneself with the possibility that one may learn the wrong thing, leaves one with the impression that performance of critical roles such as father, mother, elder may not be left entirely to informal learning. A system of continuing education has to ensure that such roles are supported by learning at appropriate institutes following upon the completion of the initial phase. What is meant, is not compulsory participation but the availability of such institutional support for those who wish to profit by it. The latter, as pointed out earlier, are very variable.

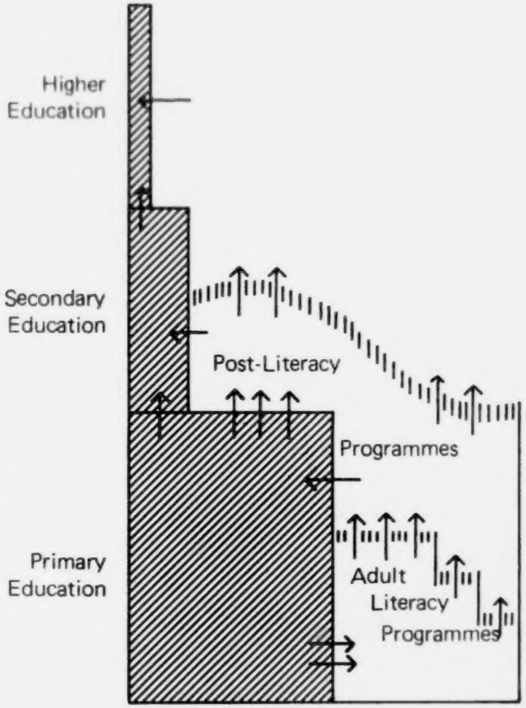
From the foregoing, it could be said that a system of continuing education has to support all people capable of performing such roles, to execute such public roles while simultaneously meeting their self-fulfilment and self-development needs. A continuing education system would ensure an initial phase of learning followed by subsequent phases at various institutes specifically set up for the purpose. It cannot be the case that the entire life-span of an individual is spent within educational institutes so conceived. Life may not be worth living if such be the case. Institutional participation cannot be truly continuous. An individual has his/her own life. One learns from life itself. It may therefore be said that the execution of a public role and the meeting of ones need for self-fulfilment and self-development are the combined effects of lifelong learning and continuing education, the former being continuous and the latter being embedded in the former for different durations at different periods of the lifespan. The kinds of questions a designer of education systems should ask from the perspective of a system of lifelong learning and continuing education are like the following.

- What is the ***range of initial learning*** for which provision should be made for all?
- What is the existing provision to bring this within the reach of all?
- What alternative institutional provision is needed?
- What proportion acquire the initial range of learning?
- Are institutions flexible enough?
- What are the public roles which need to be executed?
- What institutional provision should be made for these?
- What should be the contribution of the various institutions towards the execution of these public roles?
- Are there a sufficient variety of institutions to cater to the differing needs of individuals and groups of individuals?
- Are institutions capable of modifying themselves to suit varying circumstances?
- Is it possible for an individual to design his own education system?

Towards continuing education as a system — some promising developments

The clientele. There is complete acceptance in the developing countries and particularly in the Asian region, that the clientele for this initial phase are not only children of school-going age but also adults. Where children are concerned there is an emphasis on universal primary education (UPE). The corresponding programme for adults is literacy and post-literacy. Bordia uses the term 'basic' education to refer to both and it is useful to do so. The clientele for basic education vary widely with respect to age. The minimum is the age of entry into the formal primary school. The upper end is open. In presenting the following diagram which he calls 'Clientele of post-literacy', Bordia states: [the diagram] shows the exclusiveness of the formal system of education as it exists in most countries at present and the need to view the entire education system as an inter-connected whole with scope for lateral entry into the formal system and possibilities for upward movement available to all (Bordia, 1986).

Figure 2. Clientele of post-literacy


Higher
Education
Secondary
Education
Post-Literacy
Programmes
Primary
Education
Adult
Literacy
Programmes

The promising feature of the approach suggested by Bordia is the recognition of the present reality with the possibility of improving upon it. There is no need for countries to dismantle the formal primary schools. What is needed is to recognize the right of the adults for an initial phase of organized, systematic learning which may be institutional in the sense the word 'institution' is used in this paper. In the developing countries, where UPE would still be beyond the reach of many by the end of this decade, children may need to be catered to through non-formal education programmes in the same way as for adults. In other words, what is conceived of as primary education may need to be delivered to children not through the formal system, but through alternative means.

In Sri Lanka, literacy programmes are being run by the Non-Formal Unit of the Ministry of Education for children of school-going age, who for various reasons are not in school. It is expected that some of the younger children would enter the formal system not at Year 1 as they should have, but at a higher level. The older ones are expected to continue through the non-formal system.

Objectives, content and learning strategies. In considering the objectives of primary education and adult literacy, Bordia states that there is wide agreement on the following points: (a) self-reliance in learning; (b) viewed as a stage in a learning continuum; (c) utilization for development; and (d) communication and participation.

Bordia's attempt is not simply to think either of primary education alone or of adult literacy programmes by themselves but to think about both together. He presents the above as assumptions which third world educational planners should take serious note of. The focus is thus not on the maintenance of an education system which has been thrust upon the third world but of the content and objectives in terms of a clientele to be served from a long-term national perspective of improving the quality of life. Adult literacy is not an adjunct to, or poor relation of, formal primary education but an educational provision demanding equal importance and attention from third world education planners.

Jayasuriya in his 'A Life-long Education Perspective for Sri Lanka', refers to certain 'basic competencies' to 'ensure a sound cognitive and attitudinal foundation for lifelong education' as follows:

Apart from the acquisition of effective oracy, literacy and numeracy, attention should be paid to certain basic competencies e.g.:

a) Skills of conceptualization – perceiving and analysing relationship classifying, ordering – inquiry, problem analysis, problem solving and planning;

b) Collaborative and co-operative skills and attitudes, empathy and concern for others, identifying and clarifying values, and making value judgements;

c) Developing autonomy in learning (e.g. increasing an individual's capacity for identifying learning needs, finding out available learning resources and using them, seeking guidance as and when necessary, and engaging in the evaluation of learning through self-evaluation and/or the use of available instruments of evaluation); and

d) Skills associated with physical, aesthetic and spiritual activities which promote the all-round development of the personality.

Jayasuriya postulates the above for an 'institution-based education for about eight years beginning with the age of 5 or 6 years', which he feels is capable of being achieved by any country given the necessary political will. He advocates a strategy of institution-based first level education followed by, 'a mix of face-to-face institution and opportunities for self-learning with flexible scheduling', beyond it. According to him, 'secondary, tertiary and further education would be programmed with a maximum of self-learning based on carefully designed materials; and a minimum of face-to-face instruction'. He envisages, 'a reduction in the unit costs of education at these levels of education, thereby permitting larger inputs of financial resources to the first level . . .'.

Jayasuriya's views were given in the context of an exercise for the planning of long-term educational futures in Sri Lanka. Bordia's views are with respect to the present where, in most developing countries including Sri Lanka, there is a sizeable population of adults needing a first-level education. Bordia presents a framework to tackle the present situation while Jayasuriya indicates a very desirable target to be achieved in the near future. In the paper referred

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to Bordia submits a set of four stages applicable to both primary education and adult literacy. The extract given is illustrative.

Stage	Description	Duration or level	
		Adult Literacy	Primary Education
I	Semi-literacy	150 - 200 hrs	Class I or II
II	Partial literacy	300 - 350 hrs or about 1 year	Class III or IV
III	Elementary literacy	500 - 550 hrs or about 2 years	Class V or VI
IV	Functional literacy	More than 2 years sometime stretching to 4 years	Class VII or VIII

Source: **Extract from Table 4.5 'Matrix of levels of basic education and post-literacy programmes', of Chapter 4 "Issues in post-literacy", by Anil Bordia in Dave, R.H. [et al.] *Learning strategies for post-literacy and continuing education: a cross national perspective.* Unesco Institute for Education, 1985. p. 172-173.**

For each stage Bordia gives a brief indication of the expected achievement, suitable activities and possible programmes.

What the foregoing indicates is that some very useful ideas are available with regard to the development of an initial phase of education for all in developing countries. The issue is not seen as one of getting more of what exists. Starting as of now, with adults as well as children being the participants, countries may move towards a situation where the participants in the initial phase of education would be ***only*** children with none being left out (i.e. UPE).

Establishing innovative institutes and programmes. The case studies on Learning Strategies for Post-Literacy and Continuing Education carried out by the UNESCO Institute for Education, Hamburg, describe many instances of innovative practices in developing countries with respect to continuing education. The following examples are taken from these case studies.

China: Spare-time literacy and technical schools at the primary and secondary levels (Li Jiyuan, 1986)

China has adopted the system of setting up schools by both the states and masses. Schools are run by 'companies, enterprises and institutions of industry, commerce, communication and transport, trade unions, farms, service centres or institutes of agriculture, forestry, animal husbandry, women's federations, the Communist Youth League organization and the people's militia'.

Schools are funded in various ways. In industrial and mining enterprises 1.5 per cent of the wages of the staff and workers is allocated to education. In the countryside, voluntary collections are made from the masses. In addition the state provides a subsidy. 'However it is the responsibility of the sponsors to provide the school facilities for running these programmes. As far as management is concerned, the schools are subject to the sponsoring units. In matters of professional concern they are responsible to the states educational departments'.

The following extract from the case study gives a good idea of what is being attempted through spare-time primary schools.

Spare-time primary schools

Learners: Peasants who have attained literacy; drop-outs from primary schools; youth and cadres at the grass roots level; and some middle-aged persons.

Training goals: To enlarge vocabulary, to develop reading and writing abilities up to the level of primary school graduates, to improve the knowledge and skill of reckoning up to that of the primary school graduates.

Curriculum: Offering courses in politics, Chinese, arithmetic and general knowledge.

Length of schooling: Two or three years to be prolonged or shortened according to the amount of spare-time available for study.

Teaching materials: Making use of either the unified textbooks for peasant and worker spare-time primary schools compiled by the state, or the textbooks compiled by the provinces or autonomous region.

Teaching staff: Each class to be staffed with one or two part-time teachers from full-time schools or with youths who have graduated from junior middle schools or above and who have some teaching experience, and retired teachers. These teachers receive a certain amount of payment.

Examination and graduation: Pupils who have successfully completed the required courses and passed the examinations are granted the graduation certificate of the Part-time Primary School by the Bureau of Education under the People's Government of the county or municipality. This certificate is equal in value to that granted by the regular full-time primary school.

Indonesia: Kejar Paket A (Iskander, et al, 1986)

The Indonesian constitution states that 'each citizen has the right to receive an education'. General policy directions have been given, 'that education should be a lifelong process and should be implemented within as well as outside the school system'.

The Kejar Paket A is a comprehensive programme of literacy. It is designed for, 'primary school drop-outs and those who have not had the chance to go to school'. It consists of, 'a series of basic learning materials on all aspects of life', required by the above clientele. Learning Package A consists of booklets with 100 titles as follows:

A 1 – A20	Integrated basic lessons in reading, writing arithmetic and Bhasa Indonesia. The books are to be studied in sequence from 1 to 20, and 'the levels of difficulty of the content increases gradually'.
A21 – A60	'. . . contains additional information on basic knowledge and skills concerning different aspects of life'. The difficulty level of the content is uniform.
A61 – A100	'. . . contains information on knowledge and skills concerning various aspects of life which are wider in scope'. The difficulty level of the content is uniform, but higher than those of A21 – A60.

The learning package may be studied in various ways such as the following:

- Self study, with or without a tutor (anyone who is willing to help others to learn is called a tutor): This system is especially applicable to booklets A21-A100; it may be effective for those who are able to read and write.
- Group learning: This is guided by a learning group leader who is chosen by the group members. This method applies to booklets A1-A20 and a tutor is required. This system is considered to be potentially effective.
- Mutual learning: One who needs to know more about a specific item learns from another community member.
- Using an instructor: The learners request an instructor (resource person) to educate them about a specialized subject.
- Apprenticeship: The learner works as an apprentice with an artisan.

Supplementary materials such as work manuals, posters, cassette tapes and learning games are made available. Their production at local level is encouraged. A final achievement test is given to those who complete the course and certificates are awarded. The test may be administered at any time at the request of a learner.

Viet Nam: Complementary education (Le Son, 1986)

> . . . literacy training in Viet Nam is not an end in itself. It is rather the first step towards a continuing process of mass education. In order to further efforts of literacy and mass education a parallel system of formal and non-formal education called Complementary Education (CE) has been evolved . . . The programme is flexible since it may be full-time or part-time, can be arranged in a formal classroom as well as in a factory situation and in accordance with the learners' initial level of education. Similarly, it includes a whole range of learners from different age groups who are occupied in a variety of professions.

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The main programmes are as follows:

Full-time CE schools

- Second-level school for middle-aged cadres and employees;
- Second- and third-level schools for young people;
- Third-level schools for middle-aged cadres.

The curriculum for the first two types listed above consists of general Vietnamese, history, geography, politics, economic management, mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology and farming techniques. In the third type, the curriculum consists of literature, history, geography, physics, chemistry and genetics and improvement of breeds and seeds.

Part-time CE schools

- Schools for the universalization of first-level education;
- Second-level schools for middle-aged cadres;
- Second-level work-and-study schools for rural youth;
- Second-level schools operated by enterprises;
- Third-level schools for cadres, employees and young people.

Evening classes for illiterate children

The learners of these classes include all school-age children who have dropped out of first-level or have refused to go to school. Depending on the local situation, classes are organized in the hamlets, streets, or sub-districts. Their duration is three to four months for each form with about three evenings per week. The curriculum used in these classes is the same as for General Education schools, but more concise and with more emphasis laid on the two main subjects – Vietnamese and arithmetic calculation. Teaching and learning methods are also similar to those in the General Education schools, with somewhat more emphasis on cultural activities in order to give the children more encouragement in their learning. The instructors for these classes are recruited from teachers of General Education schools, CE instructors and literate young people. The instructional materials are compiled, printed and distributed by the educational offices of the provinces and cities.

These part-time schools are 'after-work schools, i.e. their sessions are held mostly at noon or in the evenings'. The participants in the first type above, include 'village and co-operative cadres who have not finished the first level'. The curriculum comprises Vietnamese, arithmetic and popular science. The total duration is 86 weeks at about 11 periods per week, the total number of periods being 600. The second type has a duration of about 35 weeks at 12 periods a week and the curriculum comprises Vietnamese practice, biology of farming techniques, applied mathematics, physics and geography. The curriculum for the third type mentioned above is the same as for the full-time second level CE schools for young people, with a longer duration to take account of the fact there is work as well as study. The participants in the fourth type above are the office staff and workers who have completed first-level. Classes go on for about four years with six periods per week. The curriculum comprises Vietnamese, history, geography, physiology, mathematics, physics, chemistry and industrial technology.

Specific-topic non-formal education

As the name implies, the instructional programme is based on topics such as the following:

How to increase the rice yield
Hog-breeding
Birth control
Electric shock – precautions and first aid
Improving the cooking stove.

The participants are farmers who have completed the first-level and wish to continue their learning. Each topic is covered from one to three sessions each session being of 1½ to 2 hours duration. Printed materials are available in volumes of ten topics each. About 30 topics are expected to be covered in a year. The instructors are teachers from the regular schools, village technicians and young people with third-level education.

CE schools and classes in the ethnic minority areas

- Official language courses
- Full-time second-level schools for training and retraining ethnic cadres and employees.

These are designed to serve the ethnic minorities in Viet Nam. The curriculum for the full-time second-level school is the same as that for young cadres and youths mentioned above.

These examples from the Asian region are indicative of some of the innovative attempts being made to provide for literacy, post-literacy and continuing education. Case studies from other regions carried out by the UNESCO Institute for Education give many other examples. In none of the examples given has the formal education system been under-estimated or down-graded or extolled as the only solution. In each case the formal system has been accepted and is made use of to launch other programmes. In each case it has also been accepted that the formal system alone is not adequate and cannot meet the requirements of a system of continuing education. Hence the hope that a continuing education system can be developed.

A framework for developing curricula. The development of a system of continuing education would be greatly facilitated by the availability of a comprehensive framework for the development of the multitude of curricula required. As mentioned earlier it is possible to conceive of a system of institutes I_1, I_2, I_3, etc., resulting in a set of behaviours B_1, B_2, B_3, etc., with the individuals being free to make appropriate choice of institute during the different periods of their life-span. Is it possible to consider such aspects as efficiency and effectiveness of the institutes as defined earlier? In developing school curricula it is mentioned that pupils learn not only in the classroom but at home, in the community, and in the market place. But in actual practice it is rarely that curricula are developed taking into consideration such learning. It is perhaps impossible to do so, other than at the classroom level, for an individual child. A curriculum at any other level has to be designed for a group of individuals and invariably the emphasis is on what is common to the group, ignoring the particularities. If, with respect to a single institution such as the school, it is difficult, if not impossible to design curricula taking note of all the learning which may take place, how much more difficult must it be in the context of a system of continuing education? Is it possible to handle curriculum development for such a complex system?

In this context a framework proposed by Alles (Alles, 1975) indicates a very promising approach. Alles proposes a typology of life tasks and asserts that the 'learner will need to develop certain competencies in order to perform them adequately'. He goes on to state that, 'The learner would be learning some of these informally, others formally in the schools, in traditional rituals, etc., and still others in contexts which are hybrids of formal and informal'. He may well have said, 'informally and through a system of continuing education'. Alles classifies life tasks into two broad sub-classes namely, 'one relating to maintenance and survival another relating to developmental adaptive growth'.

Each is further sub-divided into – 'Individual-personal' and 'Group-organizational-occupational' supportive of the 'self-fulfilment, self-development' and 'public role' mentioned by Suchodolski. The framework suggested is presented below in parts in a slightly modified form.

Aspects of the education of the individual

Maintenance and conservation linked primarily to survival

Education with respect to 'routine basic tasks' in 'individual-personal' living.

Motivation for task performance arising from need to	Typical tasks
1. Meet physiological demands and survive as an organism	Breathing, feeding, resting excretion, sleeping, etc.
2. Meet functional environmental demands in home and around it	Choice and use of food, clothing, shelter, housing, simple tools, etc.
3. Meet personal social demands in the home.	Family tasks: interact, communicate as child, adult (play, marriage, sickness, death, etc.)
4. Meet personal, religious, civic moral-ethical demands	Religious rituals, observances, civic and political and other cultural practices.
5. Meet other similar demands	Relevant tasks

Education with respect to 'routine basic tasks' in group-organizational-occupational' living.

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Motivation for task performance arising from need to	Typical tasks
1. Meet group-functional demands and survive as a group member.	Attend, subscribe, listen, communicate, react and take part in group tasks.
2. Meet functional demands of work place 'club' and its neighbourhood.	Choice and use of tools, farm lots, workshops, recreation spaces, etc.
3. Function actively, grow, 'multiply', develop as working groups, playgrounds, etc.	Perform group functions take part in team, trade union, welfare activities.
4. Function in terms of civic and group traditions, beliefs, rituals, etc.	Group rituals, festivals, civic-political activities, and other such practices.
5. Function in other relevant basic modes.	Relevant tasks.

'Developmental' and 'adaptive growth' related primarily to achieving 'satisfactions'

Education with respect to 'explorative creative tasks' in 'individual personal' living.

Motivation for task performance arising from need to	Typical tasks
1. Respond actively to exploratory, recreational, creative and other self-actualization tendencies	Physical, mechanical and other concrete activities.
2.	Intellectual, cognitive and other abstract activities.
3.	Aesthetic activities.
4. And other such demands	Other divergent creative tasks.

Education with respect to 'developmental research innovative tasks' in 'group-organizational-occupational' living.

	Motivation for task performance arising from need to	Typical tasks
1.	Respond actively, as a group in exploratory, development, innovative situations leading to adaptation, growth and change.	Physical, mechanical and other concrete activities.
2.		Intellectual, cognitive and other abstract activities.
3.		Aesthetic activities.
4.	And other such demands	Other divergent tasks.

As may be observed, the framework enables a comprehensive listing of the tasks involved in living. In the first instance the unit of application may be not individuals but groups of individuals. The hybrids Alles refers to may be identified as the spare-time schools, the Kejar Paket and the Complementary Education Programmes briefly described earlier. Many other examples would come to mind. In particular the modern communication technology suggests many. These technologies are now within the reach of the developing countries as indicated by the use of satellites for educational purposes by India and more recently by Indonesia. Alles proceeds to apply his framework to generate the elements of a curriculum for a learner who is between 5 - 10 years and is, 'a young child attending a conventional primary school, within walking distance of the home in a rural village in a poor country in Asia'. He develops a, 'life-skill objectives-learning opportunities distribution matrix', in which one axis is, 'aspects of learning', and the other axis gives the, 'agencies providing 'episodes' of learning'. The preparation of such matrices may be a necessary step in the development of a system of continuing education.

Some ideas about management. The emergence of relatively strong non-formal education divisions in Thailand and Indonesia which work in close collaboration with their respective traditional departments of formal education is a very promising development which merits further study. The level of staffing and the other resources provided indicate the great importance attached to educational work outside the formal system.

The development of a system of continuing education, however, requires a closer integration of educational services and not simply the emergence of parallel systems. The ideas presented in a study for UNICEF undertaken by the International Council for Educational Development appears to be very promising in this regard although they were presented for the more limited purpose of 'building new educational strategies to serve rural children and youth'. The following extract is self-explanatory.

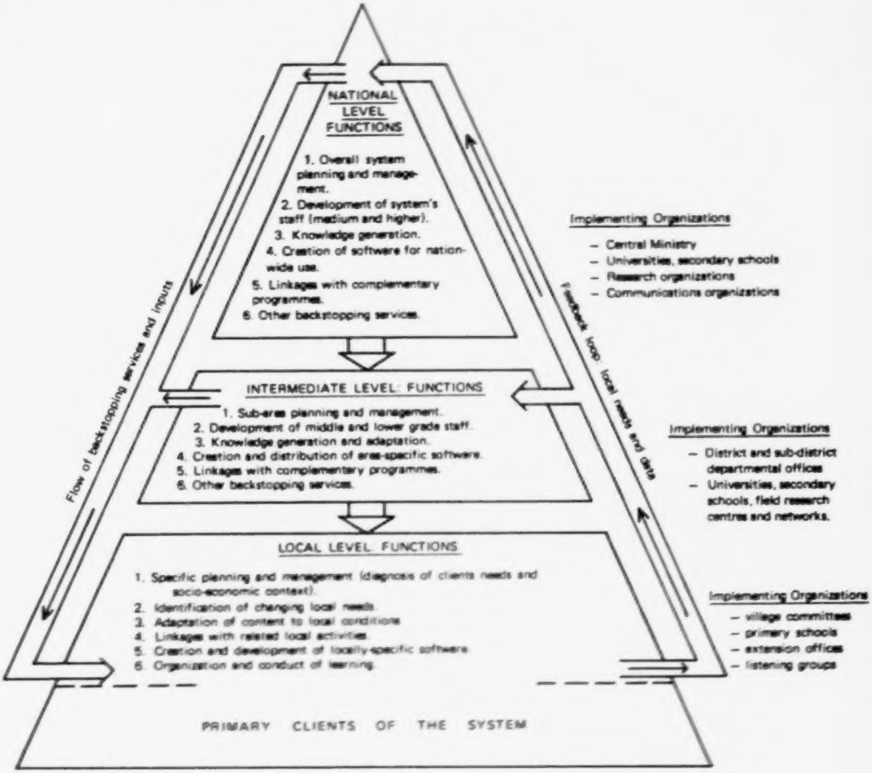
> A simplified graphic sketch of a 'knowledge delivery system' for this vertically integrated nation-wide programme is set forth in [Figure 3] which shows the multiple local units at the delivery end of the system being nourished by various backstopping components at higher levels, including: (1) ***staff development*** components (including such formal education units as secondary schools, colleges and universities); (2) ***knowledge-generating*** components (specialized research institutions and networks, colleges and universities); (3) ***software production and knowledge transmission*** components (often contained within the extension wing of the whole system); (4) other components providing ***technical assistance services*** to local programmes on operations, research, planning and evaluation; (5) the ***planning and management*** components at various levels of the system.

The study goes on to say that 'in reality, most such knowledge delivery systems, judging by the study's findings, function quite inefficiently, . . .' The conception of such a system however, is a promising feature in the context of developing a system of continuing education.

Concluding remarks

The launching of APPEAL indicates the concern of the countries of the Asia and Pacific region to tackle educational problems

Figure 3. Functional flow chart of a specific knowledge delivery system


NATIONAL LEVEL FUNCTIONS
1. Overall system planning and management.
2. Development of system's staff (medium and higher).
3. Knowledge generation.
4. Creation of software for nation-wide use.
5. Linkages with complementary programmes.
6. Other backstopping services.
INTERMEDIATE LEVEL: FUNCTIONS
1. Sub-area planning and management.
2. Development of middle and lower grade staff.
3. Knowledge generation and adaptation.
4. Creation and distribution of area-specific software.
5. Linkages with complementary programmes.
6. Other backstopping services.
LOCAL LEVEL: FUNCTIONS
1. Specific planning and management (diagnosis of clients needs and socio-economic context).
2. Identification of changing local needs.
3. Adaptation of content to local conditions.
4. Linkages with related local activities.
5. Creation and development of locally-specific software.
6. Organization and conduct of learning.
PRIMARY CLIENTS OF THE SYSTEM
Flow of backstopping services and inputs
Feedback loop: local needs and data
Implementing Organizations
– Central Ministry
– Universities, secondary schools
– Research organizations
– Communications organizations
Implementing Organizations
– District and sub-district departmental offices
– Universities, secondary schools, field research centres and networks.
Implementing Organizations
– village committees
– primary schools
– extension offices
– listening groups

from a comprehensive perspective and move away from piecemeal solutions. Lifelong learning and continuing education provide the comprehensive perspective needed. There is no doubt that the concept of continuing education is in need of further refinement and elaboration. But sufficient thinking about different aspects has been done by various thinkers, some of whom are from the Asia-Pacific region itself and innovative actions are being taken by the countries of the region to support the proposition that all countries of the Asia-Pacific region may adopt a policy of lifelong learning and continuing education and appoint task forces to examine the implications of such a policy from several perspectives.

A QUICKENING PULSE: ADULT AND CONTINUING EDUCATION IN AUSTRALIA

by Geoffrey Caldwell

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This article is concerned with describing, analysing and understanding the nature of adult and continuing education in Australia. Such an article requires a short initial description of aspects of the political and educational framework. The population of 16 million people is confined largely to the coastline, especially in cities. Like the United States and Canada, Australia has a Federal system of government. The Australian Government (known as the Commonwealth or Federal Government) has its capital in Canberra and there are six states (Queensland, New South Wales, Victoria, Tasmania, South Australia and Western Australia) and two territories (Northern Territory and the Australian Capital Territory within which Canberra is located).

Australia is in a state of uncertainty and transition. It is abandoning the close relationship that it used to enjoy with Great Britain and is attempting to find a new place in the world within Asia. But there is uncertainty as to how the country might best become involved in the Asian region and it is not clear whether Asia would readily accept a more prominent Australia.

Politically the country has become harder to govern. As it diversifies so does the complexity of its problems. There are signs that the cultural cohesiveness which used to mark Australia is much less pronounced. It has become a multi-cultural society. Women have been battling to achieve equality and progress is being made. The wealth structure is changing with an expanding number of people becoming wealthy or very wealthy, and a ballooning number of people becoming

Bulletin of the UNESCO Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific

Number 28
September 1987

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poorer and less well off. As with other countries, unemployment is growing and various disadvantaged groups are seeking a greater share of the resources which the country has to offer. The economy is subject to the shifts and changes in international economic developments and it is not easy for the Commonwealth Government to be master of its own fate.

Thus the population is becoming more diversified, its values more complex, its problems more substantial, and its groups more vocal. Groups are becoming more sophisticated, pressuring government to cater to their interests. It is within this sort of context that non-formal education in Australia should be viewed.

The structure of funding of education. While the Commonwealth Government provides a great deal of funding for education, it does not ***provide*** education, for it is State and Territory responsibility to organize and deliver primary, secondary and tertiary education. The educational systems of these states and territories reflects some diversity and some uniformity in both the formal educational system and adult and continuing education.

There are two bodies which advise the Federal Government about the level of funding for educational institutions. The Commonwealth Schools Commission advises the government on the level of grants for primary and secondary schools and the Commonwealth Tertiary Education Commission makes financial and other recommendations about the tertiary system of universities, colleges of advanced education and technical and further education colleges. Education at schools is compulsory for children from 5 to 15 years of age, except for Tasmania where the school leaving age is 16 years. Thus there is universal primary and secondary education.

However as society has become more multi-cultural, a more complex society with inequalities growing rather than contracting, the problems accumulate and remedial and adaptive action needs to be taken. The formal educational system often seems slow to move in the face of these complexities, especially for the adult population. Responses developed through the medium of adult and continuing education seem better able to help many adults to adapt to these changing circumstances.

Non-formal, adult and continuing education

Currently, three terms seem to be used frequently in describing forms of education outside formal schooling – namely non-formal education, adult education, and continuing education.

Is it possible to distinguish in any meaningful way between these terms? It is difficult to do so, because the terms may be capturing aspects of the same phenomenon. Indeed, ***non-formal education*** is perhaps the broadest, most encompassing term. It refers to organized learning that takes place outside formal schooling, and caters to virtually all ages. Non-formal education can cover for instance out of school programmes aimed at children who have missed out on formal primary or secondary schooling. Non-formal education then is the residue of organized learning outside the formal system. Non-formal education in many societies may focus largely on literacy and numeracy.

Adult education is not as encompassing because it is education confined to adults, whereas non-formal education in third world countries may be primarily concerned with children. Adult education in western countries has been traditionally defined as post-secondary, usually non-credit education for individuals over 18 years of age. Arch Nelson, formerly Director of Extension at the University of New England, has said that for practical purposes, in countries with effective systems of education, continuing education is another term for adult education. He describes continuing education as a preferable term because it emphasizes the fact that education which commenced in childhood is continuing through to adult life. In his view, continuing education should not be regarded as an addition to education experienced in childhood and youth, but more as a development from this earlier educational experience.

Continuing education can be seen as a more restricted term than adult education. It is often associated with the type of activities conducted by tertiary educational institutions. Continuing education provision is likely to have a more vocational character to it than adult education.

But while these distinctions exist and have relevance, the reality is that non-formal education, adult education and continuing education are very close relatives of the same family. The term 'non-formal education' is virtually unknown except to those who are engaged in the adult education enterprise. The concept and terms which are more widely used are adult education, continuing education and to a lesser extent community education.

Relationship between formal and non-formal systems of education. One of the critical questions in examining the nature of non-formal, continuing and adult education is the assessment of the relationship between these and the formal systems. Inevitably the formal system will dominate. But the relationship can take a number of possible forms.

First, non-formal education can be an ***inexpensive substitute*** for formal education where a country's resources are limited; second, such education can be ***remedial***, if the formal system has been unable to educate satisfactorily all its citizens; it can be an ***expansion, addition, or development*** of the formal system; and it can be an ***alternative***, adopting different, less formal methods and philosophies of learning to those utilized in the formal educational system. For example, the philosophy of those who are involved in this alternative conception, is one in which the participants are experiencing a more relevant, meaningful, personal development, student-oriented type of learning. Such education may, in this sense, be empowering for those who participate in these 'alternative' programmes.

It is likely that in any given society most or all of these relationships between the formal and non-formal system exist. But the emphases may vary, and the nature of these relationships may provide some indicators to the available resources, the complexity of the society, the value attached to educational and learning activities, and the extent of change that is occurring in the society at that time.

It is probable too that other relationships can be defined, and that those mentioned here are not mutually exclusive. Given these factors, it may be too early to develop any hypothesis. Yet, the following might be posed:

i) in resource-rich countries, the emphasis between the formal and non-formal systems will be on the remedial and developmental aspects of non-formal education;

ii) in resource-limited countries, the emphasis will be on non-formal education acting as a substitute for the formal system; and

iii) in countries where alternative systems of education emerge it indicates that educational resources are either ill-distributed and/or that the more formal philosophies and methods are inappropriate or unacceptable to those involved in these informal systems.

Role and purposes of adult education in Australia

For the purposes of this paper, 'adult education' is used as a synonym for 'continuing education'. 'Adult education' is a term that does have meaning to Australians, whereas 'continuing education' is less well known and less well defined. Indeed the term 'adult education' is recently enjoying a revival of acceptance after falling into some disfavour. While there is no national body representing continuing education as such, the major association representing the field is the Australian Association of Adult Education (AAAE).

Students of an adult matriculation school camped near Melrose, about 240 km. north of Adelaide. Run by the South Australian Department of Further Education, a Geography lecturer points out details on a map spread on the ground. Australian Information Service photograph by Douglas McNaughton.

In a recent submission to the Commonwealth Tertiary Education Commission, the organization which advises the Commonwealth Government on funding for tertiary education, the AAAE stresses the importance of adult education. In the Australian context, for instance, it spelled out the social goals that can be achieved through adult education: ***personal development*** through the enhancement of intellectual, social and physical well-being; ***equity*** by providing access to education for adults not engaged in formal study; ***economic growth*** through retraining and updating the skills and knowledge of the adult population in a climate of rapid social and technological change; and ***participation*** in social, political, economic and cultural life through the development of skills and dissemination of knowledge (AAAE, 1986: 7).

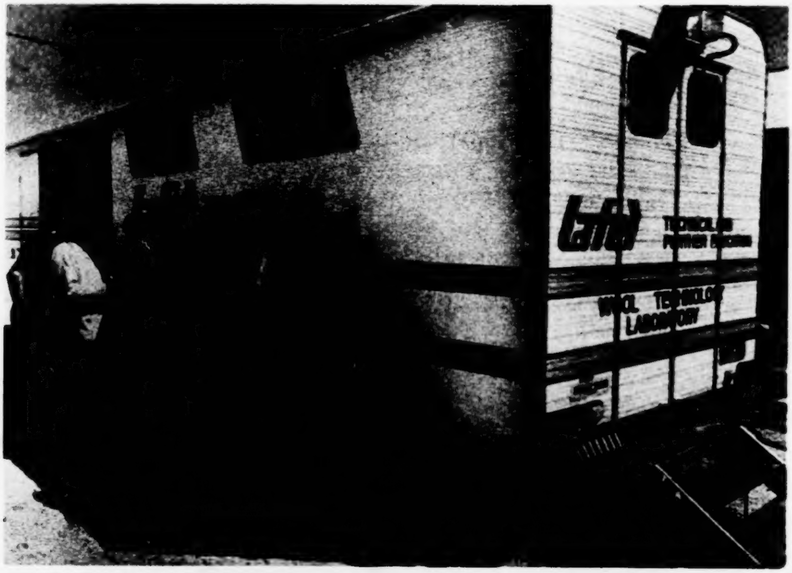
The submission makes a number of pleas in its support for greater recognition of adult education. For example it rejects the identification of adult education largely with non-vocational courses, arguing that many adult education courses have a vocational aim and outcome, citing recent research on the outcomes of attendance in adult education activity in which three-fifths of enrollees learnt new skills and in three years two-fifths of them were skilled enough to produce income (AAAE, 1986: 10).

The submission lists other reasons why adult education deserves recognition in its own right as an area of education for it permits increased access to education, creates a responsive educational provision and is a growth industry, employing many thousands of workers who are paid, underpaid, unpaid and voluntary (AAAE, 1986: 10, 11).

The AAAE, in discussing the impact of adult education on economic development, comments that detailed studies of the relationship between adult education, a well educated population and the economy have not been conducted. The AAAE argues that adult education contributes to the improvement of the professional and vocational skills of the workforce and allows large numbers of people to participate in some forms of education, specifically through non-award education leading perhaps to a return to formal education and the possibility of qualifications. As illustrative of programmes that contribute to economic development, the AAAE identifies the following: those which assist people to learn about new technologies (computers, video); programmes which develop management skills such as training programmes for Aboriginals working on self-management projects; and activities for adults employed in declining, high risk industries or restructured industries such as courses in the hospitality industry (AAAE, 1986: 13).

Furthermore adult educators have undertaken pioneering work in designing relevant education for those whose education has been limited, unsatisfactory or incomplete. For example, in the private sector, the Pratt Group of companies has hired a full-time adult educator to design and implement education programmes with hundreds of employees from 15 nationalities (AAAE, 1986: 14). Other examples are rural initiatives using adult education principles to facilitate local economic development and regional economic planning as well as workplace education projects which provide basic education classes in work time (AAAE, 1986: 14).

There is also a significant social change function to adult education. The AAAE argues that adult education makes important



Mobile education units are travelling the country roads of Western Australia bringing new skills and technology to farming communities previously disadvantaged by their remoteness from technical education centres. One is a wool technology laboratory staffed by Fremantle Technical College lecturers. Australian Information Service photograph by Mike Brown.

contributions to achieving social justice in education by providing access to the socially less advantaged, including women, Aboriginals, early school-leavers, migrants, disabled persons, people on low incomes and those living in rural or urban isolation. The role of adult education in community development assists in the achievement of social justice. Issues of public concern are debated, clarified, understood and perhaps resolved as a result of the adult education enterprise (AAAE, 1986: 14-16).

What has been spelled out hitherto are the claims and rationales for the adult and continuing education enterprises, and the goals to which adult education aspires. Some description of the scope and extent of adult and continuing education well testify to the growing diversity of the field.

The scope of contemporary adult education. Seven categories of adult education activities have been identified by the AAAE as constituting the scope of contemporary adult education. These areas are:

Adult basic education. Included in this sector are literacy, basic education, English as a second language (ESL) programmes, educational programmes in languages other than English, as well as adult participation in the final years of secondary schooling.

Continuing education. Continuing education is described as 'post-initial education for purposes of updating skills or acquiring new skills but excluding formally accredited courses in post secondary institutions'. (AAAE, 1986: 9).

General adult education. General adult education is what used to be termed liberal adult education. It encompasses non-award courses in literature, the humanities and the sciences, which have been taught in universities, worker educational associations and other bodies for many years. General adult education includes less traditional subjects such as personal development, assertiveness training and the acquisition of confidence skills.

Educational programmes related to community and social interaction. Because it is an increasingly complex world with growing demands on individuals, provision of learning opportunities are made available for people in community roles, trade union education, consumer education, health education, parent education, peace education and community arts. Included here by the AAAE are

A class run by the Australian Government. Australian Information Service photograph by Mike Brown.

programmes designed around specific community issues and community development.

Leisure and recreation programmes. Again there is a long tradition in this field, although such courses have been the subject of some derision by organizations concerned with accredited work in the vocational area. However as more free time becomes available to a growing number of people, these general adult education programmes concerned with recreation, hobbies, physical fitness and the productive use of leisure are expanding.

Staff training and development. As in other western societies, a great deal of staff training and development is undertaken by educational institutions, but to a much greater extent by work organizations. This area of education is directly related to the acquisition of skills and knowledge for individual workers.

Self-planned learning. In this category are learning projects designed and organized by individuals themselves. While there is no doubt that there is a massive amount of learning that takes place in this fashion, there is real doubt as to whether this is properly contained within the framework of continuing education.

While there is considerable provision in each of these areas of adult education, little quantitative data exists which would inform as to the distribution of participation, resources and effort in each of these areas. Collection of data on adult education is in its infancy in Australia, partly because adult education practitioners have been so immersed with organization and provision, that data collection has been relegated to low priority.

But there is an emerging consciousness of the growth of the field and the need for more information about participation in adult education. There is striking evidence that State governments are taking a keener interest in the development of adult and continuing education. For example, in 1986 and 1987, the State governments of South Australia, Queensland and Victoria have established reviews or enquiries of adult education within their respective States. In Victoria and New South Wales, policy documents on adult education have been prepared by the two major providers, and in New South Wales, the policy was adopted by the Minister of Education.

There are good reasons for concluding, as have the authors of a 1986 discussion paper prepared for the Commonwealth Tertiary Education Commission (CTEC) that adult and continuing education is an idea, whose time, if it has not come now, is in the process of rapid realization (Johnson and Hinton, 1986: 43). This discussion report is the result of an enquiry concerned with 'non-award adult and continuing education' (which the authors comment is a cumbersome, imprecise description) and is the best description and analysis of contemporary adult and continuing education in Australia.

The report discusses the nature and extent of adult and continuing education offered by the three tertiary sectors (universities, colleges of advanced education and technical and further education) the evening colleges, as well as community education. The report identifies additionally, the following as coming within the broad ambit of adult and continuing education:

a) Activities of large-scale providers such as the Workers' Educational Association; and

b) Organizations concerned with community education:
   - i) libraries, museums and art galleries in the provision of adult and community education;
   - ii) commercial providers;
   - iii) provision in private industry, church and cultural groups;
   - iv) State and Federal Government Departments; and
   - v) professional bodies such as the Australian Institute of Management.

Evening colleges and adult education. Is there any significant relationship between the primary and secondary schools and adult education? Generally the relationships are restricted to the use of school premises. For instance, in each of the States there are 'evening colleges' (although the name varies from State to State) which usually use the premises of secondary schools for the conduct of courses. The courses that are offered are wide-ranging and include general education courses and senior secondary school studies for adults. In New South Wales for instance, the evening colleges had 80,000 enrolments in 1985. However, it can be anticipated that as there is more reflection about all the sectors of education, so a sensible, logical set of relationships will develop.

Technical and further education colleges and adult education. The institutional sector most closely identified with the provision of adult education in Australia is the Technical and Further Education College (TAFE). These TAFE Colleges have links with industry and provide a degree of continuing education in the form of short courses aimed at developing vocational skills and updated knowledge of technology. For these classes, fees are not charged.

Further, TAFE is the major provider of basic education programmes for adults meeting the needs of disadvantaged adults who, because of geographic isolation, language and/or cultural deprivation and socio-economic background, have been prevented from acquiring the basic education which the vast majority of Australians have experienced. Programmes such as basic literacy and numeracy, English as a second language, preparatory programmes and special access courses, are available to participants without charge.

The TAFE Colleges offer recreational courses in hobbies, home handicrafts, self-expression and cultural activities. In 1984 there were 400,000 participants in such courses, of whom three quarters were females. Fees are charged for these courses to recover direct costs.

Universities and colleges of advanced education and continuing and adult education. Over 165,000 enrolled in adult and continuing education programmes at universities and colleges of advanced education in 1984 with the vast majority enrolled in professional development courses (110,000) with 50,000 in general education programmes.

There have been ebbs and flows in the commitment of higher education institutions to adult and continuing education, and recent years have seen decisions resulting in the disbanding of central units or reductions in funding and staffing. The priorities for these tertiary institutions are the provision of accredited education. Declining funds for universities often result in cuts in second priority areas such as adult and continuing education.

Brian Smith, of the University of Newcastle, identified four types of continuing education in Australian universities. First there are activities primarily designed to enable people to pursue studies for personal development and satisfaction. Second there are activities to promote wider public understanding of social issues and societal concerns. Third, activities are provided to give people a chance to improve their abilities, skill and competence in their professional and vocational roles. Finally, there are activities to facilitate entry into advanced specialized educational streams (Smith, 1986: 42). According to Smith, universities have had fairly clear priorities over the past number of years. Vocational competence activities have been regarded as the most important; of lesser importance are the public information and discussion activities; personal development and general adult education are of questionable value; and preparatory or bridging studies (mainly of the mature age/matriculation course kind) are regarded as suspect.

An increasing number of people have been given the opportunity to enter university late in life. Housewives and manual workers who left school early are among the mature age students who have started at university under the scheme for people over 25 who do not have academic qualifications. Australian Information Service photograph by Alex Ozolins.

One experimental development within some tertiary institutions is the operation of radio stations. These are often used to broadcast teaching material and short courses on particular topics accompanied by the issue of audio tapes and printed matter. However, not all of the time is devoted to educational provision. Community groups often broadcast in foreign languages and music features prominently. One of the acknowledged problems of educational radio and TV education is that it can be an enormous consumer of funds, time, effort, resources and talent.

The initiative for non-credit programmes activity, largely comes from members of the institution, although there may be some response to requests from outside. In effect, these institutions are ***extending*** their provision in a less formal way, more broadly to sections of the community.

The notion of extending these institutions of course, can be a two-way process in which individuals, organizations and communities seek to unlock knowledge and expertise within the university, college or other institution. Thus such institutions are responding to outside needs and some of the work of these institutions is then devoted, in a non-credentialled way, to helping individuals and groups satisfy their learning needs.

Community based education. There is considerable activity in the community, outside formal educational institutions, that is educational. Johnson and Hinton comment that one of the most remarkable features of the last decade of Australian adult education has been the growth of community based education. Community education emerges from the situation where a local group decides that it wishes to learn about a particular subject or field and it will call upon some suitable education agency to facilitate that provision with funds, co-ordination or advice – but not to offer or organize the learning activity, which it usually decides to arrange itself.

The development in community-initiated rather than institutional-initiated activity in adult education is one of the most innovative developments within recent years. In New South Wales for instance, some 80 centres have been established. Such activity is supported by different bodies in the various States – for instance in Victoria, the Council of Adult Education; in New South Wales, the

Board of Adult Education; in South Australia, the Workers' Educational Agency; and in Tasmania, the Adult Education Division of TAFE.

Local co-ordinators or facilitators of community based education try and match people who have particular interests or skill requirements with individuals who might be able to teach such an activity. These co-ordinators receive the enrolments, collect fees, pay remuneration, arrange venues, organize publicity and undertake any other organizational tasks.

In terms of relating adult, community or non-formal education to questions of equity, this is one of the most significant areas and yet in terms of funding, it is the least endowed (Johnston and Hinton 1986: 14). There are several reasons why this form of community education is very significant. First it is decentralized and exists because of the efforts of the community and thus may help erase the unhappy memories that many adults carry with them from school days. Further, such community education is easily accessible to people, individuals do not have to meet any entry qualifications and there is no assessment of their performance, thus reducing substantially such threats as fear of failure. Furthermore, through such community-based education, adults with literacy inadequacies have the opportunity to become literate.

As Johnson and Hinton say, these community centres are places where:

> . . . the dispirited and deprived get a sense of capability in simple fields which accord with their interests, and often go on to acquire formal qualifications and the dignity of productive employment; and those living in constricted environments have their horizons enlarged by new interests, new attainments and often a new social circle. This is true in the metropolis, but is especially the case in country areas.
>
> (Johnson and Hinton, 1986: 14)

This type of grass roots education reflects then, a trend for sections of the community to take steps to do something about their personal and social situations through a learning process in concert with others of like situation and concerns.

These community or neighbourhood centres represent the most invigorating developments within education and constitute the essence of non-formal education in Australia. The formality, discipline and regimen of the post-secondary institution is replaced by a sympathetic learning environment in company with supportive people, most of whom are women.

Sometimes located in a suburban house or disused school, sometimes in a converted shop or spare accommodation in a local government or public building, the learning centre is usually geographically central and accessible to the 'small community' it serves. Its presence reflects and stimulates community needs and requirements. In some centres there will be some classes studying academic subjects, usually for the highest certificate available within the school system – but in an environment that is comfortable rather than threatening or alien. Seats arranged in circles (contrasting with rows of desks in schools) and the sessions lasting from an hour and a half to three hours (as opposed to the conventional 40 to 60 minute period in the school or tertiary institution) characterise this community education. These centres serve women much more than they do men, which is not the result of any conscious policy of male exclusion but because they operate largely in the day time and are thus more accessible to women. Because these centres predominantly serve women, child-care arrangements are made so that their attraction to women becomes even more powerful.

While the main purposes of these learning, or neighbourhood, centres are to provide educational opportunities, they also serve as a social focus and community centre and at times take on what might be described as a welfare role. Johnson and Hirton describe this contribution to the welfare of their clients as 'coming through the educative process in bringing the participants to a better understanding of their personal situation, the society in which they live and its processes and the mechanisms for bringing about some change in that society' (Johnson and Hinton, 1986: 14).

The vast majority of these centres are found in cities although they are becoming more established in the country areas of Victoria and New South Wales. They are staffed by co-ordinators, some of whom are paid on a full-time basis, but more usually on a part-time basis by bodies such as the Victorian Council for Adult Education or the New South Wales Board of Adult Education or a State Department of Community Services.

The great majority of the co-ordinators are women and while some are school teachers, most have had no contact with education since they were students themselves. Most commonly they are members of the general public who have developed an enthusiasm for doing something about the educational needs in their community, by seeking out people with skills and matching them with identified needs. Little provision exists for giving these co-ordinators any formal training in adult education and if they are developing skills in this area it is through their natural intelligence, energy and commitment.

The media and adult education. Compared to the areas of formal education, adult education has not enjoyed the same status. However, there are significant signs that major institutions are beginning to recognize the importance of adult education. For example the Australian Broadcasting Commission (ABC) has a substantial series of radio programmes which are labelled as adult education. In addition, the ABC is required by the Broadcasting Act, to provide radio and television programmes of an educational nature. It does so through documentary, current affairs, discussion and talk programmes as well as drama, music and science series. For many years the ABC has had a formal education programme for schools. But the identification of programmes as 'adult education' is significant, testifying to the growing acceptance of adult education.

Other bodies involved in non-formal education. Other agencies mentioned by Johnson and Hinton which have an educative role for adults include artistic bodies such as the Arts Council of Australia, organized on a State basis and aimed at educating the artistic tastes of the community in country towns, museums, art galleries and craft societies. The Trade Union Training Authority, with branches in each State, is an agency of non-formal adult education allowing trade unionists to take advantage of a variety of opportunities to develop competence. Johnson and Hinton pay special tribute to the public library network which they believe is centrally involved with the whole enterprise of adult and continuing education.

Summary of directions in the state of non-formal and adult education

Johnson and Hinton conclude in their report that at least 60 per cent of the clients of adult education are women and comment that it is ironic that the only field of education in which women are the predominant group is that which is substantially fee-paying. They note that the unemployed, the professionally and educationally disadvantaged, unemployed aboriginal people, the illiterate and other such minorities can be most easily reached through these forms of non-formal education.

They observe that amongst the very large number of people they interviewed in the inquiry, none urged any dramatic increase in the public funds available to adult and continuing education. Those interviewed argued that much could be achieved by policy changes, addressing anomalies, redirecting funds, co-ordination, inquiry and investigation rather than any heavy increase in funding (Johnston and Hinton, 1986: 38).

There is no doubt that adult education is sought in Australia by the already educated. But many people, especially women who missed the opportunity of further studies upon their departure from school, are wishing now to seek stimulation, new developments in their lives and the opportunity to catch up with people with whom they spent their schooling. For these individuals, adult education represents a step away from the domestic environment to the broader society. As the CTEC discussion paper notes, 'adult education offers the first step to the second chance'. (Johnston and Hinton, 1986: 44).

Within the last two decades Australia has witnessed a substantial acceptance of the concepts of lifelong learning and of de-institutionalized education – pillars upon which adult education are built. The paper goes on to argue firstly that:

> As many as possible in the community should have access to the intellectual resources of the community; and secondly that the institutions, the centres of educational provision, should make positive efforts to reach out to the disadvantaged in the society. Societies cannot afford to neglect the education of large numbers

> of people, both for economic and social reasons. Democratic societies need an electorate with as much knowledge and as many keen perceptions in many fields as can possibly be achieved.
>
> (Johnson and Hinton, 1986: 44)

Two areas can be identified in which adult and non-formal education may respond to urgent needs. First, illiteracy has to be attended to, and estimates of the extent vary from 3.7 per cent to 10 per cent of the population.

Second, many lack basic education in areas that impinge upon their lives – such as in elementary mathematics, knowledge of Australian society, their basic rights, available helping resources and knowledge about how to vote or use public transport. (Johnson and Hinton, 1986: 45).

Conclusions

Adult, community and continuing education are demonstrating growing vigour, maturity and diversity. While still linked in many ways with formal educational institutions, the decentralization and de-institutionalization movements in the field are growing rapidly.

One of the most striking characteristics of this educational field in Australia is that it is 'phenomenally inexpensive' (Johnson and Hinton, 1986: 45). Governments have yet to recognize that in value-for-money terms, adult and continuing education represents the best available value. Further, community education has become a major vehicle for women to grow and develop and explore new personal directions within a receptive environment. Besides being the most decentralized educational sector, its content is 'whatever adult learners want at any given moment, at any given place and therefore it is of its essence community based, regionalized, flexible and volatile' (Johnson and Hinton, 1986: 45).

As the maturity and self-confidence of adult and continuing education grows there is both convergence of values and identification of priorities. For example, a conference of invited adult continuing and community education leaders was held in September 1986 at the Australian National University, to begin the task of identifying national priorities in adult education.

The three major priorities were as follows:

a) The setting up of a mechanism for monitoring the profile of participation in adult education;

b) Establishment of a national clearing house for research in adult education; and

c) Acceptance of the importance of local level decision-making in adult education.

Among second order priorities were the following:

a) The need for co-operative activity between educators in industry, commerce, with adult educators in higher education, TAFE and community education;

b) The greater availability of more places in higher education for undergraduate and post-graduate training of adult educators;

c) The development of a more systematic and co-ordinated approach to short course training of adult educators;

d) The establishment of a network of those involved in the training of adult educators;

e) Encouragement of the States to develop a co-ordinated policy for adult educators;

f) The development of greater public awareness of the national importance of adult education; and

g) The establishment of an adult education committee within the Commonwealth Tertiary Education Commission which is the Federal Government's advisor on the distribution of tertiary level funding.

Non-formal education is losing its marginal status. The coming decade promises to be the most critical and exciting in the history of adult education in Australia.

CONTINUING EDUCATION – THE JAPANESE APPROACH

by Kazufusa Moro'oka

Introduction

An analysis of terms. The terms 'continuing education' or 'further education' in the terminology of the United Kingdom are not widely used in Japan. Rather, the most popularly used term is 'shakai kyoiku' meaning 'non-formal education', which embraces out-of-school education for youth as well as adult education in various forms. Although a law of shakai kyoiku, 'Social Education Law', was enacted in 1949 and it provides certain legal standards for the betterment of shakai kyoiku facilities, the main characteristics of shakai kyoiku are non-formal, without any strict regulations in its implementation.

There are two routes, or a dual system. One, called 'continuing education', leads from compulsory education (primary and lower secondary) to upper secondary and to higher education, both of which come under the control of 'School Education Law'; the other, known as 'continuous education', is outside the domain of the 'School Education Law' and runs in various forms of Non-Formal Education after the completion of compulsory schooling. If we presume that continuing education starts at the end of compulsory education, then we could understand the earlier compulsory education as preparation for continuing education.

The late Arnold Hely once discussed the difference between 'continuing' education and 'continuous' education in his book, 'New Trends in Adult Education – from Elsinore to Montreal'. He wrote that adult educators 'would realize that

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*Bulletin of the
UNESCO Principal
Regional Office for
Asia and the Pacific*

*Number 28
September 1987*

lifelong education is not "continuing" education but "continuous" education . . . This implies that the 'continuing' education is a prolongation of the initial education, whereas the 'continuous' education occurs in a recurrent way when the learners feel it necessary.

In agreeing with this argument, it is understood that formal education is related to 'continuing' education, and the NFE route relates to 'continuous' education. Therefore this article deals with two aspects of the education system, i.e. the 'continuing' education system on the one hand, and the 'continuous' education system on the other.

Brief historical development of modern education

The modern education system in Japan was introduced in 1872, following the Meiji Restoration of 1868, when the Fundamental Code of Education was promulgated by the Government. It represented a really ambitious plan calling for the establishment of 53,760 primary schools throughout the country to give modern compulsory elementary education to all children aged 6 to 14 and the creation of 256 middle schools and eight universities on the broad basis thus formed, all for the purpose of opening up the opportunity of education to all the Japanese people and thereby selecting and fostering men of talent.

In 1886 the government made the first three or four years of schooling compulsory. Later, in 1900, this was extended to six years. Schooling was provided without any tuition fee. Elementary school attendance was 28 per cent in 1873, 50 per cent in 1891, 60 per cent in 1895, 70 per cent in 1899, 80 per cent in 1901 and 90 per cent in 1903. Male attendance was 98.8 per cent and female attendance was 97.6 per cent in 1912.

Along with the development of primary education those days, the Vocational School Ordinance, the Girls' High School Ordinance (in 1899) and the Professional School Ordinance (1903) were enacted, representing a reform of the education system in anticipation of an industrial revolution, which made swift progress in the 1892-1896 period. In 1893, Kowashi Inouye, who assumed the education portfolio in the second Ito Cabinet took the position that the 'people's vocational knowledge and skill' constituted 'intangible capital' for enriching and strengthening the nation and that to foster such knowledge and skill forms the 'bulwark for maintaining the independence of the nation as is the case with the drilling of army and navy personnel'. From this point of view, he set about creating lower institutions of vocational education, such as vocational supplementary schools, apprentice schools and simplified agricultural schools. This opened the way for a general reform aimed at industrial education. In this way, Japan's education was passing from the 'take-off' period into a period of 'march toward maturity'.

After the end of the Second World War, agricultural production, which accounted for half of Japan's gross national produce toward the close of the Meiji Period (1912), saw its proportion shrink to a quarter. Instead, industrial production established its ascendancy. The light industries, centring on textiles, continued to make giant strides, while the heavy industries, such as machinery, metals and chemicals, also registered outstanding progress. The growth of industrial production increased the demand for electricity, animated the transportation business, and enlarged demand for educated manpower. In 1919 the Special Council for Education (Rinji Kyoiku Kaigi) submitted three recommendations on primary school education, two recommendations on higher ordinary education and one recommendation each on university and professional education, normal school education, the school inspection system, women's education, vocational education, correspondence education and the academic degree system. The Council referred to secondary education for vocational training and recommended close co-operation with business circles and encouragement of supplementary vocational education. In line with the recommendation, secondary vocational schools endeavoured to improve their curricula.

After the Second World War, in March 1947, the Fundamental Law of Education was promulgated. The basic guiding principles to be adopted under the new educational system were democracy in place of centralization, education of the masses rather than the elite, diversity in place of uniformity and internationalism in place of parochial nationalism. The basic ideas of the new system are stated as follows in the preamble to the law:

> Having established the Constitution of Japan, we have shown our resolution to contribute to the peace of

> the world and welfare of humanity by building a democratic and cultural state. The realization of this ideal shall depend fundamentally on the power of education. We shall esteem individual dignity and endeavour to bring up the people who love truth and peace, while education which aims at the creation of culture, general and rich in individuality, shall be spread far and wide. We hereby enact this Law, in accordance with the spirit of the Constitution of Japan, with a view to clarifying the aim of education and establishing the foundation of education for new Japan.

In 1947, the School Education Law was enacted to alter the previous system, establishing the current 6-3-3-4 school system, and extending the compulsory education period from six to nine years, covering both elementary and lower secondary school. After the nine-year compulsory educational system was enforced almost without complaint, upper secondary education entered a stage of straight development in the latter half of the 1950s. The ratio of those entering upper secondary schools to the total graduates of lower secondary schools, which lingered at the 50 per cent level in the first half of the 1950s, surpassed 60 per cent in 1961 and went on to rise swiftly to 70 per cent in 1965, 80 per cent in 1968, 90 per cent in 1975, and to 95.2 per cent in 1983.

From around 1955 when the Government's Economic White Paper declared: 'We are already out of the post-war period', the Japanese economy completed the reconstruction phase and entered upon a period of full-scale growth. Industrial quarters had long been calling for the expansion of vocational education at the upper secondary level and the reduction of law education and the liberal arts at the university.

The theory of investment in education thus became one of the officially accepted theoretical bases for determining the direction of education policy, and received priority in the investment in the training of scientists and technicians as strategic manpower influencing the speed of economic growth. Among specific examples of this were the inauguration of the five-year higher professional school system, or Technical College in 1963, combining three-year secondary education and two-year higher education, as an institution for training practical middle class technicians, and they currently play a unique role in higher education in Japan, by providing specialized courses such as engineering and mercantile marine studies.

The following table presents the historical trend in the percentage of the appropriate age groups enrolled in each school level.

	Elementary Education %	Secondary Education %	Higher Education %
1875	35.2	0.7	0.4
1885	49.6	0.8	0.4
1895	61.2	1.1	0.3
1905	95.6	4.3	0.9
1915	98.5	19.9	1.0
1925	99.4	32.3	2.5
1935	99.6	39.7	3.0
1947	99.8	61.7	5.8
1955	99.8	78.0	8.8
1965	99.8	83.8	14.6
1970	99.8	89.2	18.7
1975	99.9	95.9	30.3
1978	99.9	96.2	34.0
1980	99.9	94.2	37.4
1984	99.9	94.0	29.6

Present formal education system

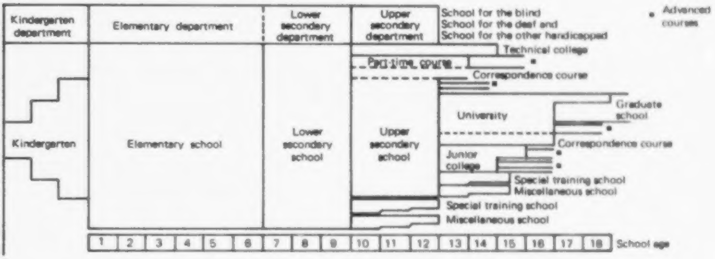
The modern school system, has a history of more than 100 years. In 1947, the School Education Law was enacted to extensively alter the previous system, establishing the basis of the current school system (called the 6-3-3-4 system) based on the principles of equality of educational opportunity. Under the new system, all children who have completed the elementary school course proceed to lower secondary schools, thus extending the compulsory education period from six to nine years.

Upper secondary schools started in 1948 with full-time courses, part-time courses and correspondence courses.

Universities under the new system started in 1949. The following year a provisional system of junior colleges started, and a permanent system of junior colleges was established through an amendment to the law in 1964.

Figure 1 shows the present structure of the formal education system, and Table 1 shows the number of institutions and enrolments therein at different school levels as of May 1983.

Figure 1. School system


Kindergarten department
Elementary department
Lower secondary department
Upper secondary department
School for the blind
School for the deaf and
School for the other handicapped
* Advanced courses
Technical college
Part-time course
Correspondence course
Graduate school
University
Correspondence course
Junior college
Special training school
Miscellaneous school
Special training school
Miscellaneous school
Kindergarten
Elementary school
Lower secondary school
Upper secondary school
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18
School age

As of 1983, there were 25,045 elementary schools, 10,950 lower secondary schools, 5,369 upper secondary schools, 62 technical colleges, 532 junior colleges, and 457 universities, and the total student population in each level was approximately 11.7 million, 5.7 million, 4.7 million, 47 thousand, 379 thousand, and 1.8 million respectively. Elementary and lower secondary schools are overwhelmingly local public; upper secondary schools are approximately 70 per cent local public and 30 per cent private; technical colleges are 85 per cent national and 8 to 7 per cent local public and private; junior colleges are over 90 per cent private and 4 to 5 per cent national and local public; and universities are 73 per cent private, 24 per cent national and 3 per cent local public.

Provisions within the formal education system. Formal education provisions after compulsory schooling provide learning opportunities to full-time and part-time students. Upper secondary schools part-time and correspondence courses, and the evening and correspondence courses of universities and junior colleges are available to those young workers who find it difficult to advance to day courses and who still wish to receive formal schooling. Some courses are designed mainly to provide general education, while others offer technical and professional knowledge and skills. As of 1982, 1,379 upper secondary schools provided part-time courses for 138,000 students and another 85 schools provided correspondence courses in which 125,000 students were enrolled. Sixty-five universities and 103 junior colleges provided evening courses for 120,000 and 28,000 students respectively, while 12 universities and nine junior colleges gave correspondence courses to 100,000 and 83,000 students respectively. Thus we can see the size and extent of the provision of continuing education in the formal education system as above.

Table 1. Number of institutions and students by type of institution (as of May 1983)

Type of institution	Number of institutions	Number of students		
		Male %	Female %	Total
Kindergartens	15,189	1,118,756 (51.0)	1,074,052 (49.0)	2,192,808
Elementary schools	25,045	6,013,552 (51.2)	5,725,900 (48.8)	11,739,452
Lower secondary schools	10,950	2,924,811 (51.3)	2,781,999 (48.7)	5,706,810
Upper secondary schools	5,369	2,374,615 (50.4)	2,341,490 (49.6)	4,716,105
Technical colleges	62	45,935 (97.2)	1,310 (2.8)	47,245
Junior colleges	532	38,331 (10.1)	341,094 (89.9)	379,425
Universities	457	1,419,163 (77.4)	415,330 (22.6)	1,834,493
(Graduate schools)*	(268)	(53,972) (87.1)	(8,028) (12.9)	(62,000)
Special schools for the handicapped	895	58,009 (61.5)	36,362 (38.5)	94,371
Special training schools	2,860	203,215 (39.7)	308,965 (60.3)	512,180
Miscellaneous schools	4,674	310,540 (51.2)	295,404 (48.8)	605,944
Total	66,033	14,506,927	13,321,906	27,828,833

- * The number of institutions represent the number of universities having a graduate school. The number of students in graduate schools represent university students enrolled in Master's courses or Doctor's courses offered by graduate schools. (The number of students for universities includes the enrolment in graduate schools).

Non-formal education

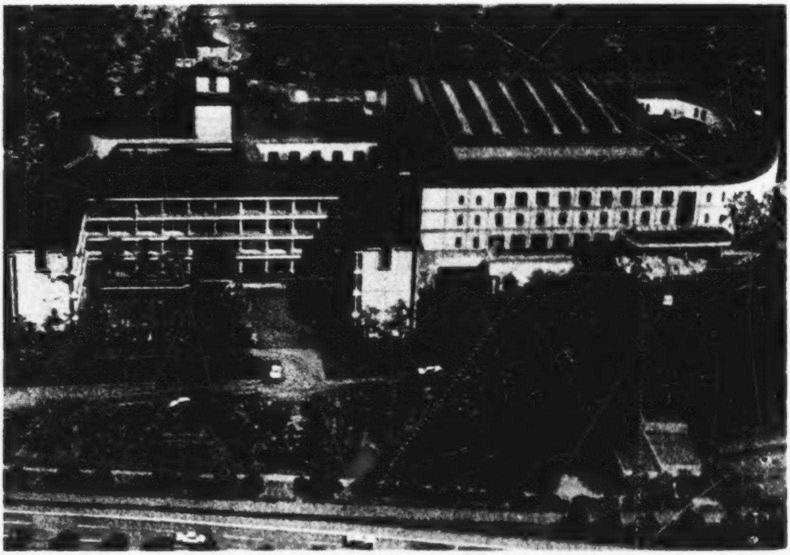
Provisions within the non-formal education system. 'Continuous education' comes into being when learners want to learn something spontaneously. For that, the availability of an educational environment comprising establishments, facilities and broadcasting programmes, is vital, since meaningful encounters between learners and their milieux can not occur without such an environment. Therefore, the Social Education Law of 1949 states that national and local public bodies are obligated to promote an environment congenial to cultural enhancement for all citizens so that each citizen can make the most of himself or herself.

When the enrolment of students in upper secondary schools was not so large, the Youth Classes Promotion Act was issued in 1953 in order to promote the learning activities among working youth who entered the society directly after their nine-year compulsory education. With the increase in number of those advancing to upper secondary schools and also colleges and universities, however, these youth classes gradually lost general popularity.

As a guideline for the promotion of continuous education, the Report on Social Education in Rapidly Changing Society, which was published by the Social Education Council in 1971, has played a leading part in the actual enforcement of the policy. The main recommendations of this report were (a) broadening of the concept of social education; (b) systematization of social education from the viewpoint of lifelong education; (c) improvement of educational content and methods for meeting the variety of demands; (d) promotion of organized activities and voluntary activities; and (e) emphasis on social education administration.

The main facilities and provisions for continuous education are:

Kominkan (citizens' public halls). The Social Education Law encouraged the local governments to build 'Kominkan' (citizens' public halls) as main facilities for the promotion of continuous education. They were required to undertake a variety of educational and cultural programmes adapted to the needs of the community, including organizing various courses, classes, lectures and exhibitions; lending books; and holding meetings for physical training and recreation. Kominkan facilities are also open to the public for their voluntary activities. In 1959 the 'Standard Regarding Establishment and Operation of Kominkan' was issued and it helped further to improve their activities. There were 17,520 Kominkan with 46,528 staff in 1983.



Social Education Centre of Fukuoka Prefecture

Public libraries and museums. In order to provide the libraries and museums as non-formal education institutions, the Library Law was enacted in 1950, the Museum Law in 1951, and the 'Standard Regarding Establishment and Operation of Public Museums' was issued in 1973 and the 'Standard Regarding Establishment and Operation of Public Libraries' in 1977, all of which greatly promoted the establishment and improvement of these institutions. By 1983, the total number of public libraries was 1,644 with the staff of 13,145, while there were 676 public museums with a staff of 10,368.

Social correspondence education. There are two large categories of correspondence education: school correspondence education, which is mentioned above, and social correspondence education, which is provided mainly by corporate bodies, non-profit private bodies and enterprises. To encourage worthwhile correspondence courses, the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture authorizes some of the correspondence courses offered by voluntary organizations as 'recognized correspondence courses'. In 1983 there were 180 recognized courses organized by 42 organizations. There are a great variety of such courses including business courses in such areas as business administration and computer science, technical and technological courses in such areas as electric engineering, mechanical engineering and architecture, and other courses in such areas as dressmaking, cooking and foreign languages. In 1983, there were 68 clerical courses, 80 technical and 32 cultural courses. The total number of students was some 280,000 and the ratio of male to female was 5 : 2.

By publishing about 300,000 copies of a Guidebook on Social Correspondence Courses every year the Ministry of Education is encouraging people to enrol in these courses. Since 1952, a special grant has been provided for organizing study groups of students who are learning in this way.

Special training schools (Senshu-gakko). Special training schools are a new type of educational institution initiated in 1976, which originate in the educational establishments known as Kakushu-gakko, or 'miscellaneous' schools. They are designed to offer systematic programmes of education aimed at developing each individual's ability to bring out the best in their working and daily lives and raising their level of general education. Courses at special training schools last one year or more, and the schools are required to give instruction for 800 class hours per year, and must have an enrolment of at least 40 students.

The courses offered at special training schools are of three types: (i) upper secondary courses, admitting lower secondary school graduates; (ii) advanced or college courses, admitting upper secondary graduates; and (iii) general courses, specifying no particular requirement.

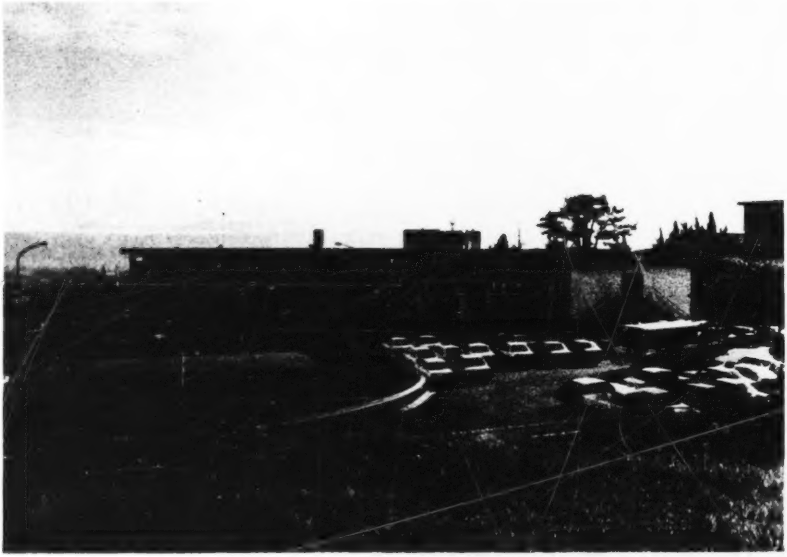
In May 1982, there were 2,804 special training schools with about 480,000 students, offering numerous courses in a great variety of areas, for example, civil engineering and architecture, electricity, electronics, electronic computer science, training of hospital nurses, dental technician training, cooking, beauty art, training of nursery governesses and teachers, accounting and book-keeping, typing, dressmaking, knitting handicrafts, designing, and foreign languages.

There were also 4,867 miscellaneous schools (Kakushu Gakko) with about 630,000 students, providing mainly young people with vocational and practical training in such fields as dressmaking, cooking, book-keeping, typing, automobile driving and repairing and computer techniques.

Skill examinations. With the aim of encouraging people in individual studies and practice of skills, the Ministry of Education authorizes the examination of knowledge and skills, such as business English, shorthand, sewing, Kana-typewriting, tracing and lettering. These examinations are all undertaken by juridical persons. About 1.8 million people applied for these examination in 1983.

Hiroshima Prefecture Children's Nature Centre

Vocational training. There are two major types of vocational training in Japan: one is 'public vocational training' which is given in public facilities set up by the national, prefectural or municipal government or by the Employment Promotion Projects Corporation, and the other is that which is provided by non-governmental bodies including individual employers, associations of employers and other non-profit voluntary organizations. Among the latter that are considered to be of equal level to those offered in public vocational training facilities, are those designated by the prefectural governor as 'authorized' vocational training organizations. Vocational training is broadly classified into basic training, upgrading training, updating training and instructor training, with programmes for new graduates from schools, in-service workers, and for the unemployed. There are currently 267 public General Vocational Training Centres with an enrolment of 110,000 trainees and 140 public Advanced Vocational Training Centres of which 90 are established by EPPC, with an enrolment of 70,000 trainees. There are 513 independent 'authorized' establishments and 788 co-operatives with about 40,000 and 50,000 trainees respectively.



ASO Youth House residential Youth Adult Education Centre

Provision by education business. A growing number of continuing courses and lectures are organized by so-called 'Kyouiku Sangyou' or education business in larger cities with a view to improve general culture and vocational knowledge and adult skills. Many of these courses and lectures are offered at special facilities with such names as 'culture centres'. These programmes are carried out with a great variety of course contents and with university teachers and other eminent experts as lecturers. According to a recent survey, 38 newspaper publishers, 22 broadcasting companies, and 41 department stores run some 400 centres for about 400,000 people. The tuition fees for classes and courses offered by Kominkan is nominal in most cases.

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University extension course. In complying with the present-day demands for higher education among adults, an increasing number of extension courses are offered by universities themselves with the financial support of the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, and others at the requests of firms and organizations. The themes of studies range widely, including technical subjects, contemporary social problems, topics concerned with family life and its techniques, and cultural subjects in general. In 1983, 1,895 of these courses were offered by 291 public junior colleges and universities, and 216,000 people attended.

The University of the Air. The University of the Air is a formal education institution under the School Education Law. Its structure and curriculum organization should therefore comply with the standards for universities, and the standards for university correspondence education determined by the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture. The aim of the University is to provide a new educational institution as a nucleus of the lifelong education system, by making effective use of radio and TV for university level education. The three major purposes of the University are to: (a) provide university level education for workers and housewives; (b) ensure a flexible opportunity for university education for those who complete upper secondary education as a new method of higher education; and (c) provide the education of a new era, sharing the fruits of the latest research and educational techniques as an educational institute which can mobilize the co-operation of as many people concerned with university education as possible, and to help the improvement of university education in Japan by promoting the exchange of teaching staff and the interchangeable credit system between existing universities, and by extending the use of the materials developed for the University of the Air. There are three major courses provided on 'Life Science', 'Industry and Society', and 'Humanities and Nature', consisting of more than 230 subjects. The standard hours of study per week for a full-fledged student to graduate from the university in the minimum four-year period are; listening to five 45-minute programmes, approximately five hours study with textbooks, and attending one instruction course of three hours. The study centres for the university are to be built in each prefecture to offer schooling and counselling. So far the service area of the university has been limited to the Kanto region, around metropolitan Tokyo area.

Educational broadcasting. There are two types of radio and television broadcasting companies in Japan. One is the Nippon Hoso Kyokai (NHK, or Japan Broadcasting Corporation) which is a public corporation financed by license fees, and the other comprises commercial broadcasting companies. It is 60 years since radio broadcasting began in Japan, when NHK was established. The corporation aired black and white television broadcasts for the first time in 1953 and regular colour television broadcasts in 1960. NHK has put continuous effort into the educational use of broadcasting, and produces many types of educational as well as cultural programmes.

Commercial broadcasting companies also transmit numerous educational and cultural programmes which together account for more than 30 per cent of total broadcasting hours. The Commercial Broadcasters' Educational Association (CBEA), set up in 1959, now has 41 affiliated member companies, and has been attempting to improve these programmes with special concern for their educational potential. In order to secure a high rate of audience participation, NHK distributes a broadsheet titled 'NHK Channel Eye', while CBEA publishes a guidebook on 'Through the Eyes of Parents and Children' to the general public. As of September 1983, registered television set households accounted for more than 3 million out of 33 million households. Thus broadcast and television receivers are accessible to all families and individuals learning by these means across the country. Along with the availability of good broadcasting programmes, the number of classes making use of those programmes has been increasing remarkably. A survey by NHK indicates the classes numbered 206 in 1971; 1,445 in 1975; 2,962 in 1980, and 2,984 in 1984; with a total of 156,000 participants. The most popular programmes are 'Mothers' Study Room', 'The Diary of Lower Secondary School Pupils', 'NHK Special Edition', 'Today's Health', 'Good Morning Journal', 'NHK Citizens' University', 'Today's Cuisine', 'Hobby Courses', 'Bright Countryside' and 'Lady's Encyclopedia'.

Information Service Project. Along with the acceptance of the idea of lifelong education, the necessity for more comprehensive and integrated information services was realized among those concerned with continuous education. A new venture to provide a comprehensive consultation service, the Information Service Project for Lifelong Education, was started in 1976. It is supported by state subsidy. This project is provided by the prefectural boards of education and aims at encouraging people to participate in learning activities throughout their lives. By issuing guidebooks or newsletters at least four times a year and by using television spot announcements at least 26 times a year, it provides the general public with information concerning how to join in learning activities, how to make use of educational institutions, and how to become a member of any organization.

It is recommended that the prefectural board of education set up a special consultative committee in which the members shall be persons of learning and experience or shall represent the local boards of education, school and social education institutions and voluntary organizations, in order to carry out the project more effectively.

During the first year (1976–1977), ten prefectures implemented this project, and the results were so favourable that all 47 prefectures now participate in this project. This programme attracted people who had never participated in continuous education. Governmental as well as non-governmental bodies are now setting up more learning opportunities to meet the newly cultivated demands of those people. This experience demonstrates that, when information and consultation services in lifelong education are provided, preparation must also be made to increase availability and accessibility.

The tasks ahead

Changing life styles. Japan is a small island country, poorly endowed with natural resources and now supporting a large population of 120 million. These factors have made people hard-working and enthusiastic about the education of the younger generation.

In 1955 those working in the primary sector of agriculture, forestry and fishery still accounted for a high 37.5 per cent of the working population, but this figure fell sharply in the following two decades to 10.4 per cent in 1980. Meanwhile, those employed in the secondary sector rose from 24.4 per cent of the working population in 1955 to 34.8 per cent in 1980. By far the most significant shift in the working population has taken place in tertiary industries – the service sector. By 1980, more than half of the nation's total working population, or 54.6 per cent had been drawn to the service sector, compared with 38.1 per cent in 1955. This indicates that Japan is evolving into a service oriented economy, which needs much more educated manpower than before so as to produce 'knowledge-intensive' products.

Other features that affect an adult individual's 'accessibility' to continuing education in particular are the amount of income and leisure time, life expectancy and number of children he or she may have. The average monthly wage for an employee in all industries is around ¥300,000 (about US $2,000). One of the latest surveys tells us that an adult person is ready to spend ¥3,000 to ¥10,000 or 1 to 3 per cent his/her income for any sort of learning per month. The widespread practice of family planning in the post-war years has reduced the average number of children per couple to 1.8 in 1981, as against 3.6 in 1955. The mode of living has also changed under the influence and widespread use of modern household appliances, instant food preparations or frozen foods and ready-made clothes. This has made possible additional time for educational and cultural pursuits for the entire family, especially the wife, who was previously 'tied down' to her daily household chores. Thus, with a lighter household load and increased leisure time, more and more married women have entered the labour force and also the learning activities or voluntary service activities. The average life expectancy at birth, which in 1935 stood at 47 years for men and 50 for women, has increased by more than 25 years, reaching 73.32 years for males and 78.83 years for females in 1980.

Prerequisits for the promotion of continuing education. In promoting learning activities among the adult population, it seems necessary to satisfy three conditions. The first is to provide them with a wide variety of learning opportunities (availability). The second is to make it easy for them to take part in those learning opportunities (accessibility). The third is to provide information and consultation services to the public (information and consultation).

Availability. As mentioned earlier there have been a large number of legislative measures formulated related to social education, youth classes, libraries, museums and sports promotion. These measures, together with financial support, have provided better environments for continuous learning activities and contributed to the expansion of the availability of learning opportunities.

Accessibility. The paid education leave that was recommended by ILO has been accepted in large companies. To make mothers' learning activities possible, continuing education establishments such as Citizen Public Halls, Women's Education Centres and Culture Centres have set up nurseries. To give local education authorities relief from the worry of meeting claims for injuries sustained during continuing education activities, several casualty insurance schemes have been developed.

Information and consultation. Each local education authority has been putting great effort into establishing learning information centres, issuing guide-books of continuing education facilities and/or provisions and giving counselling and consultation services.

Continuing education for what? The goals or aims of education have been identified in several ways. Among them, the most familiar is a five-way categorization of adult education areas as a kind of 'basement for comparative studies' presented by the Exter Papers. They are: (1) education for health, welfare and family living; (2) fundamental and literacy education – remedial; (3) education for vocational, technical and professional competence; (4) education for self-fulfilment; and (5) education for civic, political and community competence. These are alternatively described as physical health; social and human relationships or communication; economic development; cultural self-fulfilment; and political decision-making.

So far as Japanese continuing education is concerned, there seems to be little need for literacy education (area 2); vocational education (area 3) is fairly well provided; cultural activities (area 4) are flourishing especially among women and the aged; and physical recreation activities (area 1) are most popular throughout every stage of life.

However, it seems that the Japanese people are not well trained in terms of international citizenship (area 2); nor are they well equipped with the competence to play relevant roles as parents (area 1). As for the latter, the importance of parents education has also been putting stress on continuing education, since the country has been confronted with problems of increasing violence, vandalism and delinquency among young people. As for the international citizenship aspect, discriminative attitudes of the public against foreign people and minority groups are easily found. That is why the education to eradicate such discriminative behaviour and attitudes has been given greater emphasis in formal- and non-formal education.

Perhaps, the development of 'globalism' to secure peace on this divergent world is the most serious task to be tackled.

CONTINUING EDUCATION IN THE PHILIPPINES

by William S. Griffith
and Remigio P. Romulo

> Thus far our money and efforts have been devoted to the education of the nation's children. We are busy building for the morrow without thinking of the present, forgetting that the Filipino nation of today is composed of the parents of those children, the men and women who are beyond the reach of the public schools. In proportion as this adult population is enlightened are the Filipinos assured of their liberties.
>
> (Manuel L. Quezon, first President of the Philippine Senate and first President of the Philippine Commonwealth).

Continuing education in the Republic of the Philippines reflects the culture and geography of a nation of 54 million people, with a territory consisting of over 7,107 islands and scores of ethnic enclaves based on several religions, migratory histories, linguistic differences and a succession of governments that have used education to pursue various goals. Major emphases through the years reflect a stability of purpose, though the terminology used to describe programmes and the structures employed to operate those programmes appear to suggest shifting priorities. The thesis of this article is that the conditions of life in the Philippine archipelago have influenced the nature of educational programming because successive governments have all found it necessary to deal with them in designing and conducting programmes. The history, current status, and anticipated future development of continuing education in

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Bulletin of the UNESCO Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific

Number 28
September 1987

the Philippines reflect cultural and geographic forces that must be considered by any government as it attempts to design programmes to advance its particular objectives.

Changing names and structures for continuing education

Continuing education is used in the title of this article even though the current term used in the Department of Education, Culture and Sports is 'non-formal education'. A succession of names has been employed through the years for the educational programmes provided for adults and for youth who were not attending formal schooling. Early in this century the government provided educational programmes for adults through 'civico-educational lectures' to provide useful and practical information for those who were too old to attend the public schools. In the 1930s the government provided 'community assemblies' to encourage and facilitate personal and community development. The 1935 Constitution, Section 5, Article XIV, states: 'The Government shall establish and maintain a complete and adequate system of public education and shall provide at least free public primary instruction, and citizenship training to adult citizens'. The University of the Philippines provided instruction in literacy and civic education during the 1930s as well. The names suggest emphases, but not drastic shifts in direction.

In 1936 the government established an Office of Adult Education to train personnel to conduct educational work with adults, to sponsor, encourage, and organize classes for adults, to work with other departments engaged in educational programming for adults, and to build a statistical base for describing the educational status of the adult population and the provisions for meeting their educational needs. During the Japanese occupation the Office of Adult Education was closed and did not resume operation until 15 August 1947, at which time its name was changed to the Adult and Community Education Division and it was placed within the Bureau of Public Schools. In 1956 the Adult Education Division was changed to Adult and Community Education Division. Other terms employed at various times include community education and folk schools. Government organs are reincarnated with new names frequently.

Presidential Decree No. 1, effective 24 September 1972, reorganized the educational system, abolished the Adult and Community Education Division and assigned its personnel to the Bureaux of Secondary and Higher Education and to the 13 newly created educational regions (Bernardino and Ramos, 1981: 19). The 1973 Philippine Constitution states: 'The State shall provide citizenship and vocational training to adult citizens and out-of-school youth . . .' To oversee this training the post of Under-secretary of Education and Culture in-charge of Non-Formal Education was created by the President in 1977.

The Bureau of Continuing Education was established by the Education Act of 1982. It was identified as the main implementing arm of the non-formal education educational programmes of the Ministry. The 1987 Constitution spelled out the range of responsibilities for the Bureau of Non-Formal Education. The terms 'adult' and 'continuing' both carry the implication that the educational programmes they describe are intended for those who have passed the stages of childhood and youth. In contrast, non-formal education includes both adult or continuing education, and programmes for children and youth ***outside of the formal school system.***

Changing names for the department. The department in charge of education for children and youth as well as for adults has had several names. From 1901 until the Japanese occupation it was known as the Department of Public Instruction. During the occupation it was called the Ministry of Education. In July 1947 it was renamed the Department of Education under Executive Order No. 94. In 1975 the responsibility of the department was enlarged and it was renamed the Department of Education and Culture. When Presidential Decree No. 1397 reorganized the government, the departments were changed to ministries, so the Ministry of Education and Culture came into being. Then, in 1982, by Executive Order No. 805, the Ministry was again enlarged and given the additional responsibility for sports. With the adoption of the new constitution in February 1987, the ministries again became departments and today the department with responsibility for all of education is known as the Department of Education, Culture and Sports. Although the names used have varied, it is clear that throughout this century there has been a continuing commitment on the part of successive governments to provide certain basic educational programmes for adults and older youth outside of the formal school system. In this article the terminology used for what is frequently regarded elsewhere as continuing education will vary according to the governmental terminology employed for the respective years being discussed.

Changing names for programmes. Through the years the programmes for adults have been known by a variety of names under successive governments. Under the Spanish regime popular continuing education was conducted through the use of plays which gave the people, few of whom could read, an opportunity to acquire some feeling for the key stories of the catholic tradition. Such education was not formally designated as adult or continuing education. Children and adults were caught up in passion plays which taught them the official interpretation of the historical events that undergird the religion that was brought to them by the priests who accompanied the occupying army. Education was by no means limited to programmes for the literate or even those who wished to acquire literacy. Town fiestas reflect that tradition today.

Since the defeat of Spain in 1898, continuing education programmes have been known as literacy education, community assemblies, community education, development education, community development, civico-educational lectures, adult education, livelihood education, lifelong education and non-formal education. Each of the terms reflects a particular emphasis. In fact, they probably imply a greater degree of change than can be found in an examination of the programmes that were and are being conducted.

Values and education

Little has been written about the educational practices of the peoples of the Philippine archipelago prior to the arrival of the Spanish explorers. One can reasonably assume, however, that the informal education provided by the various clans placed a major emphasis on the family and its centrality to the life of the people. Each culture devises its own educational approaches to perpetuate its core values. Because families constituted the basic social groupings of Philippine society, it is reasonable to assume that informal education maintained and protected the core unit, which was the extended family. Both the high regard for the extended family and other core cultural values have survived over 400 years of changing governments and foreign domination. The continuing importance of traditional extended families to the society is reflected in the 1987 Constitution which clearly defines the family as the key unit of the nation and does not allow for the dissolution of families through divorce proceedings. The perpetuation of religious beliefs and the protection of the concept of family has been accomplished through informal education provided by the older members of families and in formal education by the deliberate infusion of values education into the school curriculum.

The concept of a Filipino nation did not exist prior to the arrival of the Spanish explorers, who found the land divided among tribal groups, each claiming autonomy. The Spanish explorers claimed all of the islands for Spain and regarded them as one nation, despite the fact that no indigenous national government existed and the tribal groupings on the various islands did not regard themselves as belonging to a single nation, let alone as being subordinate units of a national structure. Even today loyalty is stronger towards the clan and the region than to the national government.

Despite centuries of foreign domination, central cultural patterns of the Philippine peoples have persisted. Ludivina Señora noted that '. . . despite the pervading influences of both eastern and western cultural values, the Philippine society has preserved the ***bayanihan*** spirit which tends to stress tradition, authority, personalism, sympathy, family ties, interdependence and harmony rather than autonomy and individualism' (Señora, 1981: xiii). Other Filipino behavioural norms are, 'high respect and care for elders, use of courteous language, compassion, patience, ***pakikisama*** or a feeling of oneness with a group so as to maintain harmonious relationships, ***utang na loob*** or a feeling of deep gratitude for favours granted . . .' (Señora, 1981: xiii). These patterns must be considered in the planning of any educational programmes.

The uses of education

According to John Foreman, a scholar who described the 'political, geographic, ethnographic, social and commercial history of the Philippine archipelago' from the beginning of the period of Spanish rule through the early years of American governance, education in the Philippines under the Spanish was a function of the church. Foreman reported that instruction was almost exclusively limited to religious matters and handled by the friars. Even when Governor Narisco Claveria, who served from 1844 to 1849, attempted to introduce a number of reforms including the extension of education to the provincial parishes, education remained the exclusive privilege of the Spanish, the half-castes and the children of those who were serving in some office on behalf of the government. Foreman concluded that education divided the people into two distinct castes, one consisting of intellectuals who acquired wealth, possessed rich estates and had fine houses, artistically decorated. The other was left illiterate, ambitionless and unaware of the potential value of education and uninterested in seeking it for themselves or for their children (Foreman, 1906: 192). Although Foreman did not provide evidence to support his conclusion, he asserted that, '. . . the friars were altogether opposed to the education of the masses, whether through dialect or Spanish, in order to hold them in ignorant subjection to their own will, and the result was that the majority grew up as untutored as when they were born' (Foreman, 1906: 193).

Yet education was not entirely neglected by the Spanish rulers. It was employed consciously to advance Spanish interests. Agorrilla, historian of Philippine adult education, noted that, 'any form of amusement that tended to develop the libertarian spirit, or that did not conform to the Spanish colonial policy, was promptly modified, if not suppressed. That was the form of adult education which existed in the Philippines during the Spanish regime' (Agorrilla, 1952: 13 - 14).

Emergence of nationalism and educational consciousness

Yet, among the intellectuals who had been eligible to take advantage of the educational opportunities open to the selected elite, an interest in the concept of the Philippines as a free nation arose. Dr. Jose Rizal, who was educated in Europe as a scholar and who is popularly regarded as the greatest and most beloved of the Filipino heroes, during his exile [from Manila] in Dapitan in the latter part of the Spanish regime, taught children and adults the 3Rs and his school constructed an irrigation system and a waterworks. He and his students cleaned the town plaza, installed benches, and constructed a relief map of the Island of Mindinao, which they erected in a corner of the plaza (The Community School, 1952: 10). So it is noteworthy that the intellectual leader of the blossoming sense of nationalism in the Philippines was dedicated to the advancement of education for adults as well as children. Further, his concept of education was that it should serve the immediate needs of the people.

Rizal and other like-minded Filipino patriots sought to establish a free Philippine nation, but they encountered disappointments and defeat at the hands of foes and supposed allies. After joining with the forces of the United States in fighting the Spanish government of the Philippines in the 1890s, the Filipino patriots were disheartened to find that the Americans did not accept the view that they were aiding the Filipinos in a war of independence. Instead, the Filipino leaders were chagrined to find that the United States Government was preparing to take over the Philippines as a protectorate until the American government decided that the Filipinos were ready for self-government. This change in the Filipinos' understanding of their relationship with the United States led to an extended period of hostilities between the Filipino leaders and the United States military. Against impossible odds, the Filipino independence fighters tried, unsuccessfully, to wrest control of their country from what they regarded as occupying invaders.

Changes under the American administration

Following the war with Spain the United States set up a Philippine Commission to oversee the operation of the departments of the national government. In 1901 this Commission passed Act No. 74, establishing a Department of Public Instruction. Within a decade of the end of the Spanish-American War in which Spain ceded the Philippines to the United States, the American government had worked out the arrangements for a bicameral legislature, the lower house of which was elected and was known as the Philippine Assembly, a name taken from the Malolos Constitution. Members of the upper house were appointed by the military governor. It is noteworthy that the first act of the Philippine Assembly was to appropriate funds for the establishment of public schools.

Under the American regime free primary education and the use of English as the language of instruction were established. Free primary education was a new idea in the Philippines because the Spanish regime had no intention of encouraging universal primary education. English was employed in part because of the absence of any single universally acceptable dialect and possibly in part because of the existence of teachers and textbooks that could be exported from the United States to supply the need. As recently as 1980 more than 80 different languages and dialects were spoken in the Philippines with Tagalog, the major dialect, spoken by only 30 per cent of the total number of Philippine households (Philippine Almanac, 1986: 161).

Early interest in education for adults by Filipino legislators. The interest of the Philippine Assembly in education was not limited to schooling for children as shown by its passage of a 1908 Act, which provided for a system of 'civico-educational' lectures, intended for those who were too old to attend public schools (Agorrilla, 1952: 2). These lectures were conducted in the municipalities and especially in the barrios and sitios (smaller geo-political groupings). The popularity of these lectures is indicated by the fact that in 1912 approximately 522,474 people attended them.

Persisting educational concerns

The topics of those lectures remain contemporary concerns. The 'most important' topics were identified by Agorrilla (1957: 17) as (1) Rights and Duties of Citizens; (2) The Prevention of Diseases; (3) A Garden for every Home; (4) Agriculture and other Industries as Honorable Vocations; (5) Care and Treatment of Domestic Animals; and (6) The Care of Children. Any of these topics might be found as the focus of a non-formal education programme in the Philippines today, indicating that the issues that were addressed through education in the early years of this century are among those that still constitute national concerns. Given the number of dissident and insurgent groups that have existed at various times in the history of the nation, some of which are at large even today, the Philippine Government understandably continues to be concerned about the beliefs citizens have of their privileges and civic responsibilities. Efforts are being made to provide educational programmes both to retain the young people in the schools and to reach those who have already found it impossible to continue within the formal system so as to foster their peaceful and productive integration into the society. Programmes are being developed to assist some drop-outs to return to the formal educational system and others are intended to provide direct vocational and occupational training that will assist unemployed and underemployed persons to secure desirable employment. Educational as well as other government leaders are devising new approaches to non-formal education and employment opportunities to attract out-of-school youth, as well as unemployed youth and adults, back to programmes to facilitate their pursuit of satisfying occupations.

Challenges in nutrition education. Nutritional deficiencies continue to plague the nation and the schools routinely measure and weigh primary school age children to obtain data on the incidence and degree of malnutrition. Programmes such as Food Always In The House (FAITH), stress the importance of home vegetable gardens, though the notion has not yet been widely accepted. Health educators continue to address the problems arising from diets composed largely of rice and dried fish, and they attempt to discourage the prevailing tendency to overcook those vegetables which are eaten. A teacher-child-parent approach is being used in the School Health and Nutrition Programme based on the concept that nutrition messages taught to the children will be shared by the children with their parents and eventually lead to improved nutritional practices in the family (School Health and Nutrition Centre Annual Report CY 1986: 27). This approach is similar to the well known 4-H programmes found in many nations.

Challenges in sanitation and health. Continuing problems with malaria and parasites pose threats to the health and survival of children, and reflect the widespread problems of unsatisfactory sanitation. The 1986 Annual Report of the School Health and Nutrition Centre reported that 84.9 per cent of the school children who were tested in 1986 had intestinal parasites and 23.0 per cent were malnourished (School Health and Nutrition Centre, 1987: 1). When lectures were provided in the 1930s, efforts were made to deal with these same problem areas that had been addressed 20 years earlier and at no time have the results matched the providers' expectations. More important, the malnutrition of children and the high incidence of parasite infestation today indicate that education of adults and children alike has not yet influenced the nutritional and sanitation practices of the people to the point that these problems can be brought under control. The inadequate sanitary and dietary practices continue to pose challenges that educators are still seeking an effective means to change.

In 1933, the Philippine Legislature passed Act No. 4046 which provided for community assemblies to:

1. Develop a more intelligent and enlightened public opinion;
2. Instruct the public in subjects of intense interest;
3. Inform the public with regard to citizenship activities and duties, health problems, proper diet, and so forth;
4. Guide the public in improved methods of industry, agriculture and economy;
5. Encourage the people of the community to convene for social intercourse regarding their community and general welfare; and
6. Further interest the community in its local folklore, folk songs, dances and games.

NON-FORMAL EDUCATION ROMBLON DISTRICT

NFE Food Preservation exhibits

Community assemblies carried on the tradition of the 'civico-educational' lectures and in many cases dealt with the same topics. The most popular topics (those that were delivered more than 200 times between 1932 and 1937) included the following:

	Title of lecture	No. of times delivered
1.	Home sanitation	494
2.	Save the babies and children	484
3.	Short-term crops after the regular harvest	423
4.	Keep away from the usurer	407
5.	Teaching health to our children	387
6.	Raise poultry for profit	380
7.	Drinking water	332
8.	Sanitary toilets in rural districts	332
9.	Hints on vegetable gardening	319

These topics are as timely today in the rural Philippines as they were half a century ago. Reports of current rural development efforts attest to the continuing need for remedial action on sanitation, nutrition, and child health. Teaching alternative ways of obtaining cash income such as by raising and selling poultry, hogs, and vegetables continues to command the attention of community developers. These problems persist and the educational solutions attempted have produced only modest results, yet they are continuing.

University involvement in the education of adults. In 1935 the University of the Philippines created a Committee on Literacy and Civic Education to organize university alumni into a volunteer corps to undertake adult education work. By 1938, the university was conducting classes in nine adult schools in the Manila area. The effort, known as the UP Rural Adult Education Project, was discontinued by the university after the Government established an Office of Adult Education, with responsibilities for conducting the same kind of educational work as the university had been providing.

The major concerns of the Office of Adult Education were the reduction of illiteracy and the provision of vocational and citizenship training for adults. The Act that established the Office of Adult Education required it to:

1. Initiate and conduct surveys to determine the extent and distribution of illiteracy among adults;

2. Enlist the interest and co-operation of organizations on adult education activities;
3. Prepare a comprehensive programme for adult education work;
4. Organize and supervise schools and classes for adults;
5. Disseminate instructive cultural and vocational information;
6. Secure lecturers, demonstrators, extension and follow-up workers for adult education;
7. Train teachers and community organizers for adult education;
8. Co-operate with the Bureaux of Education, Health, Science, Plant Industry, Commerce and Labour in undertakings concerned with vocational training and the improvement of living conditions;
9. Co-operate with the Philippine Library Association for the establishment of public libraries which can better serve the educational needs of adults; and
10. Prepare statistics and reports on its activities and the means for carrying out its objectives.

A focus on community education and development. During the 1950s community education and community development became popular topics. Possibly no adult education venture undertaken in the Philippines has been described in more glowing terms than those employed by Vitiliano Bernardino who claimed that, 'Today [the community school] is serving as the principal instrument for rural reconstruction in the Philippines and, more than any other single movement or social force in the country, has been responsible for improving the standard of Philippine rural life'.

He perceived that the community school was having a major impact on the communities of the Philippines. In 1958 he reported:

> The Philippine Community School is apparently succeeding in the different areas of its operation and development. It is easy to point out small and large communities in the Philippines which have improved in their general appearance, in health and in economic

> conditions as a result of the impact of the community school. Easily the most noticeable among the improvements is the cleanliness and sanitary conditions in most communities. Construction of toilets and blind drainage have been accelerated, conditions of homes and surroundings have changed for the better, and more school-community projects on better diet, child and maternity care, and model house construction are being undertaken. The economic aspect of the programme has resulted in increased food production and vitalization of home industries. Its cultural aspect has improved the quality of the people's leisure activities and popularized reading centres, public forums and discussions, and literary musical programmes.
>
> (V. Bernardino, 1958: 184).

Despite the glowing reports of the success of the community school, this particular form of continuing education was eclipsed by subsequent thrusts of the Department of Education. The Department also encouraged the testing of other approaches such as Philippine folk schools. One of the conditions that led to the testing of various approaches was a recurring concern for the out-of-school youth who were perceived as susceptible to being attracted to 'activities that would not be in the best public interest'. Rural underemployment and urban unemployment have been, and continue to be, a social problem for the Philippines in that the energy of youth who have no adequate gainful employment is potentially explosive if they are led by individuals and groups who advocate revolution and related violence. In order to encourage the development of law-abiding, useful and productive citizens among those who had discontinued their schooling, the Philippine folk school and other approaches were tested and, wherever possible, the successful practices identified in these efforts were integrated into the existing continuing education programmes.

No striking changes in the provision of non-formal education were made when Philippine independence was achieved on 4 July 1964, the date the United States officially relinquished its control.

Non-formal education legislatively defined. Non-formal education was defined in the Education Act of 1982, which stated:

Non-formal education is any school-based educational activity undertaken by the Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports and other agencies aimed at attaining specific learning objectives for a particular clientele, especially the illiterates and the out-of-school youth and adults, distinct from and outside the regular offerings of the formal school system. Non-formal education was further defined by the specification of three objectives to:

1. Eradicate illiteracy and raise the level of functional literacy of the population;
2. Provide unemployed and underemployed youth and adults with appropriate vocational/technical skills and to enable them to become more productive and effective citizens; and
3. Develop among the clientele of non-formal education proper values and attitudes necessary for personal, community, and national development.

So, since the early years of this century, successive Philippine Governments have been using education in an attempt to raise the level of literacy, to provide opportunities for youth and adults to acquire marketable skills, and to foster attitudes that are necessary for personal, community and national development.

Persistent diversity and its implications

The Republic of the Philippines is made up of diverse groups, some of whom are deeply concerned about their autonomy to the point that the new Constitution takes cognizance of that fact by making provisions for the consideration of autonomous areas which will be more independent than provinces but which will still remain a part of the Republic. These groups, and similar ones, have existed in the Philippines for centuries. Muslims have been living in Mindinao since at least as early as the fourteenth century; in 1980 four religions were being practiced in the Philippines, namely Catholicism (83 per cent); Protestantism (9 per cent); Islam (5 per cent) and animism (3 per cent) (Philippine Almanac, 1986: 289, 308). Each of these religions has taken on special characteristics that reflect the Filipino traditions and cultural values. Ethnic differences may pose problems in terms of national unity, but the philosophy embodied in Presidential Executive Orders and in the Constitution as well calls for the cherishing of diversity and the protection and enhancement of cultural traditions as a part of the valued resources of the nation. Educational programmes that respect such diversity require sophisticated planners.

The Bureau of Non-formal (Continuing) Education. In its Annual Report for 1985, the Philippine Ministry of Education stated that the Bureau of Continuing Education was pursuing two major goals:

1. The provision of functional literacy, numeracy and general education that will enhance awareness of social goals, government thrusts and programmes to improve the quality of life of the individual, family and community, and
2. The provision of skills to enhance the productivity, efficiency and competitiveness in the labour market. (Ministry of Education . . ., Annual Report, 1985: 25–26).

These two goals were further elaborated in four specific objectives to:

a) Improve the literacy rate through massive implementation of the non-formal education programmes all over the country;

b) Develop a productive and self-reliant citizenry through an intensive livelihood skills development training programme;

c) Develop and produce relevant educational materials for functional literacy and livelihood skills development; and

d) Upgrade competencies of non-formal education personnel by way of seminars, workshops and other in-service education activities (1985: 26).

The Bureau is composed of three divisions – programme, staff development, and continuing learning delivery systems. There is a regional non-formal education supervisor in each of the 13 regions. There is an assistant superintendent in charge of non-formal education in each of the divisions. A division non-formal education supervisor directly takes charge of the implementation and monitoring of the non-formal education programme in each of the 127 school divisions. Further, there is a non-formal education co-ordinator in each of the 2,029 school districts all over the nation. Finally, a local school co-ordinator for non-formal education has also been designated in many big elementary and secondary schools (Romulo, 1987: 7). All these persons have received special training to prepare them for their responsibilities in non-formal education.

The size of the programming effort of the Bureau of Non-formal Education is reflected in the number of classes held and the number of adults served. In Calendar Year 1985 the Bureau conducted 4,285 Literacy classes with 72,569 enrollees and 48,854 graduates. In livelihood skills development 14,683 classes were held with 352,275 enrollees and 267,003 graduates (Annual Report CY 1985: 3, 12). In 1986 the Bureau reported that it had organized 4,369 functional literacy classes with an enrolment of 99,034. Of the 67,797 graduates of these classes, 27,479 were out-of-school youth and 40,318 were adults. There were 18,313 livelihood skills development classes with 366,858 enrollees and 273,138 graduates in 1986 (Annual Report CY 1986: 2-24).

Programme assessments. Much of the reporting on adult/community/continuing/non-formal education in the Philippines is somewhat overly optimistic in terms of the potential value of the various programmes. Penetrating analyses of the programmes, their operation and their effects are scarce. Those who conduct programmes understandably are inclined to present the results in a positive light. Those who are planning programmes may be expected to have optimistic views of their anticipated outcomes. One exception to the prevailing style of reports is by Vega (1950: 106-124), who questioned the emphasis that had been placed on literacy in community centred schools. It was his contention that although individuals who were literate would be better able to solve community problems than those who were not, he felt that a direct approach to social reconstruction would be more effective in reaching the intended audience. Further, the involvement in social reconstruction projects would itself provide the motivation for adult students to pursue literacy as a desirable skill to acquire as a tool for solving other problems. Such an approach would require that the work undertaken was freely chosen by the learners as a means of achieving their own goals.

A second criticism was that simply making physical improvements in the villages and homes would not likely be of lasting value if the residents were not actively involved in the examination of the problem situation, selection of alternatives, and actual performance of the necessary work. He asserted that the most important educational outcomes are not the changes that are produced in the environment, but rather the increased capacity of the learners to manage their own individual lives and their communities. Investment in education, unaccompanied by the essential infrastructure development, does not allow for the expression of the learning in actions so a combination of learning experiences and action projects may be essential for the best results in terms of human and community development.

In his analysis of the effectiveness of various educational approaches to rural development in 1987, Romulo, identified five significant problems:

1. Inadequate supply of instructional materials on rural education in the different regions;
2. Lack of personnel with adequate background in rural education;
3. Need for more active participation of parents in community-based projects;
4. Lack of resources for maintenance and operating expenses of rural education projects; and
5. Supervision and monitoring of rural education projects in certain areas are slow and expensive due to poor means of transportation and communication (Romulo, 1987b: 13).

Under the current administration the Bureau of Non-formal Education is examining its programmes analytically and is attempting to address these and other problems that have limited and are limiting their effectiveness.

Towards the future

Non-formal education is perceived by educational leaders as an instrument to develop the communities and human resources of the nation. Evidence of the desire to link non-formal education with development is indicated by the co-sponsorship, in 1979, by the Ministry of Education and Culture and the Asian Centre of Educational Innovation for Development (ACEID) of a Seminar-Workshop dealing with strengthening the link between work and learning through increased emphasis on productive skills for rural development. The highly applied focus of non-formal education was pointed out by Dr. Felicita G. Bernardino, first Deputy Minister in charge of non-formal education and keynote speaker, who stressed the fact that the non-formal education programme shall work hand in hand with other sectors in locating and identifying sources of raw materials, the marketing of the products, and the training of personnel in the particular milieu of the different regions to give the impetus to the promotion and creation of income-generating work opportunities in cottage and home industries (National Seminar-Workshop, 1979: 68).

SHELLCRAFT PROJECT
PALAUI ISLAND
STA ANA CAGAYAN
NONFORMAL EDUCATIO

A newly established Reading Centre at Mangatarem I. Reading materials are solicited from civic organizations.

Currently the department is encouraging closer co-operation and complementarity between the non-formal and the formal sectors of education. In this connection, Bernardino stated, 'The first priority is to bring to the vast number of farmers, workers and small entrepreneurs and others who have had none, or very little, formal education, a spate of useful knowledge and skills which they can promptly apply to their own and their barangay's development' (F. Bernardino, 1979: 9). She warned that NFE should not consist merely of literacy, agricultural and vocational education. Further, she advocated having programmes for social justice education and improvements in health, nutrition, child-care, home economics and other related subjects which are for immediate and practical use in uplifting rural living conditions (1979: 9). To accomplish the educational provisions, Bernardino said that the needs would be met through a system of non-formal education which would include education through radio, like distance education and schools on the air; television; seminars; discussions; workshops; programmed lessons; sandwich courses; short courses; and the like (1979: 7). Yet in advocating an increased investment in non-formal education, she warned that it should not be seen as a substitute for formal education, but rather as a complementary system to serve those who cannot be served adequately by the formal system (1979: 9).

A programme in population education that has been a part of the government programme for more than a score of years is also seen as an instrument for helping to achieve the national goals of fertility reduction and national welfare aims. The target is to help promote regional welfare and development and ultimately national welfare through programmes where in-school youth and out-of-school youth and adults study population concepts that will eventually help them to make rational decisions regarding their fertility behaviour, migration and other population issues (1986: 21).

Under the Freedom Constitution, approved in a referendum in 1987, the people of the Philippines have approved the establishment of a Bureau of Non-Formal Education within the Department of Education, Culture and Sports, with a mandate to perform the following functions:

1. Serve as a means of meeting the learning needs of those unable to avail themselves of the educational services and programme of formal education;
2. Co-ordinate with various agencies in providing opportunities for the acquisition of skills necessary to enhance and ensure continuing employability, efficiency, productivity, and competitiveness in the labour market; and
3. Serve as a means for expanding access to educational opportunities to citizens of varied interests, demographic characteristics and socio-economic origins of status. (Executive Order No. 117, Sec. 15).

Continuing education

The policy of the Philippine government, as specified in Executive Order No. 117 is that:

> The education system shall make a maximum contribution to the attainment of national development goals; that the State shall promote and maintain equality of access to education and the enjoyment of the benefits thereof by all citizens; and that the State shall use education as an instrument for the development of the cultural communities to enrich their participation in the community and national life and to unify all Filipinos into a free and just nation. (Executive Order No. 117, Sec. 3).

The range of responsibility of the Bureau of Non-Formal Education under the new constitution has been spelled out as follows:

1. The State shall encourage non-formal, informal and indigenous learning systems, as well as self-learning, independent and out of school study programmes, particularly those that respond to community needs; and
2. The State shall provide adult citizens, the disabled and out of school youth with training in civics, vocational efficiency; and other skills (Romulo, 1987: 1-2).

In December 1986, the Bureau of Continuing Education convened a national training programme for 'multi-disciplinary educational personnel in the rural areas' at which the general objective was to train a team of multi-disciplinary educational personnel in planning, implementation and evaluation of continuing education projects within the context of rural development. At that training programme it was observed that previous efforts to develop rural communities had been unsuccessful, possibly due to the 'dole-out' strategy they employed. Accordingly the dole-out strategy was reported to be an inappropriate one for facilitating rural develoopment (Report of the National Training, 1987: 9).

Natino (1987) advocated the use of a definition of rural development that had been proposed by the Asian Centre for Development Administration, in which the entire rural development effort is viewed as a process which leads to a continuous rise in the capacity of rural people to control their environment, accompanied by a wider distribution of benefits resulting from such control (1987: 124). Such thinking clearly places the emphasis on learning by the rural people so that the focus in evaluation is on the extent to which they become increasingly capable of taking charge of their own lives, rather than on the magnitude and extent of physical changes.

Shellcraft Project of Cagayan

The current government stresses the importance of encouraging initiative and self-determination among the Filipino people. A locally organized project such as the Cotabato Rural Uplift Movement (CORUM) is intended to nurture self-help and self-reliance. The three major objectives of the movement are to:

1. Assist the barrio people to improve themselves by conducting a programme that will combine in one movement an all-out attack on the interrelated problems of poverty, ignorance and disease;
2. Teach the barrio people to be self-reliant, self-sufficient and conscious of their civic rights and duties. CORUM

aims to assist people meet their problems by helping them become aware of these problems and how they can solve these by relying on their own efforts.

3. Provide non-credit training to adults and out-of-school youth through practical courses in agriculture, health and sanitation, literacy, co-operatives, citizenship and cultural appreciation (Romulo, 1987b: 6–7).

On the basis of reports submitted by the local administrators, the Director of the Bureau of Non-Formal Education has concluded that:

> The change of attitude of the learners from that of resignation and helplessness to that of initiative and determination appears to be the major accomplishment of CORUM. The rural folks have come to realize that, unless they bring about their own development, no amount of outside assistance can rescue them from a miserable life of poverty, disease and ignorance (Romulo, 1987b: 7).

Non-formal education for development is not limited to the work of the Department of Education, Culture and Sports. As is the case in most other countries, non-formal education is provided in many programmes conducted by nearly every department. Development projects funded by international donors and managed by Philippine organizations and agencies all play a role in the continuing education of Filipinos. Within the Department of Education, Culture and Sports there is an appreciation of the complementarity of these efforts and a commitment to even closer collaboration in the future.

Although continuing education has been known by several labels through the years, the central concerns of the government for education have shown a remarkable consistency since the proclamation of independence by the Malolos government in 1898. Prominent among those aims are a continuing concern for the building of a sense of nationhood that will accommodate the diversity of the Philippine people and yet build upon that diversity in establishing a nation in which all have an opportunity to develop their talents to the fullest. To accomplish this aim, educational and other supporting programmes are required to equip the citizens with the skills, knowledge, attitudes and resources essential to leading healthy and economically productive lives.

Dr. Cleudualdo B. Perez, Jr., Under-Secretary in Charge of Non-Formal, Technical and Vocational Education, stated that increased emphasis is being placed on the assessment of the impact of non-formal education programmes. He said the new name signifies that the Bureau will be paying increased attention to providing education for out-of-school youth as well as continuing its efforts with adult literacy work, livelihood skills training and education in values. Non-formal education, because it is aimed at addressing practical problems, is deserving of not only an absolute increase in funding, but also an increased percentage of the total education appropriation. As is reflected in the new constitution, non-formal education will play an important role in the work of the department because it has the potential to contribute to economic development.

Under-Secretary Perez noted that one of the tasks of the Department of Education through its formal and non-formal programmes is the provision of training programmes to assist those who may have dropped out of the educational system without securing an occupational qualification that will enable them to enjoy a productive and satisfying life and thus contribute to their own continuing development and that of the nation. Among the challenges the Under-Secretary sees is that of establishing, maintaining and strengthening linkages with the non-formal educational programmes that are being conducted under many different names in various government departments. In order to provide an effective integrated and co-ordinated system of non-formal education, he believes that it is essential to give increased attention to the working relationships among the many units of government that are engaged in non-formal education. In addition, he noted that many non-government organizations (NGOs) in the Philippines are already working in non-formal education, but that not all their efforts are well co-ordinated with those of other providers. Because of the size of the educational task it will be necessary for all of the providers of programmes, both government and non-government, to work together to meet the challenge.

A concluding note

Non-formal education, since the proclamation of independence in 1898, has consistently been intended to facilitate the development of citizens and communities through programmes of health, sanitation, nutrition, child-care, home gardening, livelihood skill development, wise use of credit, improved agricultural practices and civic responsibilities. Under the Freedom Constitution, increased responsibility for self-government has been placed on the citizens and so additional resources are being provided for non-formal programmes to help them to handle their new responsibilities effectively and wisely. Although the 1935 Constitution brought universal primary education to the nation, literacy programmes must be continued as individuals with limited formal education seek to upgrade their skills to enable them to perform their occupational, parental, social and civic responsibilities most appropriately. With increased resources, with closer linkages between the formal and non-formal sectors, and with additional attention being given to relationships with other providers of non-formal education, both governmental and non-governmental, the Bureau of Non-Formal Education is likely to play an even more significant role in the improvement of the quality of life of the Filipino people in the future than it has in the past. As President Manuel L. Quezon has observed, 'In proportion as this adult population is enlightened are the Filipinos assured of their liberties'.

SECTION TWO

CONTINUING EDUCATION IN ASIA AND THE PACIFIC: AN OVERVIEW

Bulletin of the UNESCO Principal
Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific
Number 28, September 1987

CONTINUING EDUCATION POLICIES

by Namtip Aksornkool

Introduction

Most countries in the region view continuing education as part and parcel of another broader concept of education. The term is often used interchangeably with 'out-of-school education', 'follow-up education', 'community education' and 'lifelong education', among others. Thus far, various countries have given overlapping definition of the terms. Most countries, however, consider continuing education an integral and indispensable part of lifelong education.

Because the modes of delivery of continuing education are mostly non-formal, it is often grouped under non-formal education. In discussing the policies of continuing education, therefore, information on non-formal education has been taken into consideration.

The need for policy

Surveys of the implementation of continuing education in the Asia and Pacific region indicate that despite a variety of existing programmes in each country, each geared towards a specific target group or to achieve particular sets of objectives, the programmes are generally ***ad hoc.*** They may be conducted by government or non-government agencies. Some have large funding, others do not. Most share one common characteristic. They do not fall under one umbrella plan which relates them to one another as well as to the national development plan. In Bangladesh, for example, adult education programmes which had been included in the nationwide mass education programme are now delegated to be the responsibility of the non-government voluntary organizations. However, it should also be mentioned that these activities of the non-government organizations have been co-ordinated under a control council formulated by the government.

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Continuing education

Several countries have begun to realize the need to establish a national plan and strategy for non-formal/continuing education. In most cases, linkages of continuing education to the country's five year plan are increasingly considered desirable. Examples may be cited from developed as well as developing countries in the region, e.g., Bangladesh and Australia.

In recent times, there has been some periodic dialogue among agencies engaged in continuing education in many countries in the region, in emergent recognition of the need to co-operate with one another in order to avoid overlapping and/or competing activities and to maximize resources and positive impact. However, an overall national plan or policy with unambiguous directions and clear functions and scope for each agency, as well as the mechanism for linking the activities under the responsibility of each agency, is glaringly missing.

This issue was discussed at length at the UNESCO Regional Workshop on Non-Formal Education in Asia and the Pacific in Tokyo, 1986. The Workshop identified the lack of clear-cut policy and/or the lack of political will to implement continuing education through non-formal education; a problem related to policy. It put forward that the national policy on continuing education must be approved by the parliament and must be mentioned at the central level. Since most continuing education programmes are community based, it was agreed that planners for continuing education must consult the community in formulating policies and plans.

Until such time that national continuing education policy related to the five year plan of each respective country is available, one may be forced to be content with discussing policy and plans in terms of implicit versus explicit policy.

Explicit policies

Surveys of the practices of continuing education in the region reveal that although most governments are aware of the important role of non-formal education/continuing education on development, only a few have a clearly stated or explicit policy on continuing education. Thailand is one such country.

In Thailand, the continuing education policy is stated in a document entitled the ***Sixth non-formal education development plan***

(B.E. 2530 - 2534).* The policy of non-formal/continuing education as reflected in the National Education Plan (B.E. 2520) stipulates:

> The State shall provide education such that every Thai citizen will be able to effectively use the Thai language for communication. The State shall also make arrangements for the complementarity between the formal and non-formal educational systems. There will also be provision for practical as well as theoretical education . . . (The National Education Commission, 2524 : 203).

Non-formal education is, here, interpreted to mean lifelong or continuing education for the public at large. (Department of Non-formal Education 2529).

The national policies for non-formal or continuing education are clearly stated – each accompanied by implementation strategies. The following are two examples of the ten point policy of Thailand's non-formal/continuing education.

Policy and implementation strategies

1. To promote functional literacy among the general public who are not out of the formal educational system, particularly those in productive age, in order that they may be able to read and write Thai as well as to receive continuing education as necessary.

Implementation strategies

1.1 Promote public interest and recognition of the importance of being literate in Thai.

1.2 Improve the methodology in imparting literacy to enable effective implementation.

1.3 Promote literacy education in various forms focusing on the clientele among productive and ethnic groups.

1.4 Promote non-formal activities so that these will be contiguous with the literacy campaign as well as to promote the application of the acquired skills in everyday life.

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* Buddhist Era 2530 - 2534 are equivalents of 1986 - 1990.

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Continuing education

Policy

2. To encourage those who have missed the opportunity to study in the formal education system to be educated in the non-formal system at least until the completion of the compulsory education and to provide continuing education as necessary.

Implementation strategies

2.1 . To provide guidance to the population who have missed the chance to study in the formal education system, to receive education through non-formal education.

2.2 Expand and improve various forms and models of continuing education, particularly, in the area of education through radio and correspondence . . . and to make it convenient to the clientele to participate.

2.3 To develop models for non-formal education for the youth who have completed grade VI and do not continue with their education and the graduates of the National Literacy Campaign Course in order to develop knowledge and skills, necessary in everyday life as well as to continue with their formal education as necessary.

2.4 Improve the equivalency system such that there will be continuity between the two systems and to make it possible to accredit the experience acquired both in and out of the school system.

Through the dissemination of the policy document, the information on the policy and implementation strategies are filtered through to all levels of implementing agents. It is often referred to in the case of actual implementation of programmes.

Another country in the region with a clear-cut policy, although it was not called a policy, is China. In 1978, the 'Directives on the elimination of illiteracy' was issued by the State Council.

> The Directives called on the Party committees at all levels to strengthen their leadership on literacy. Worker peasant education administrative bodies should be restored and perfected at the provincial, regional, prefectual, municipal, county and commune levels.
>
> ***Literacy situation in Asia and the Pacific: country studies – China.*** Bangkok, Unesco, 1984

The policy on continuing education in China goes far beyond literacy. In 1979, the second national conference on peasant education was held. The major outcomes were the following six tasks that peasant education had to tackle.

1. Pay close attention to the literacy work;
2. Carry out spare-time junior secondary education on a large scale;
3. Actively run spare-time junior middle schools;
4. Carry out agricultural scientific and technical education in a widespread way;
5. Strengthen political ideological education; and
6. Run special professional middle schools for peasants.

This meeting was particularly significant because it links literacy, ***per se***, with continuing education. Such linkage is also integrated into Article 19 of the Constitution of the People's Republic of China which states:

> The State develops socialist educational facilities of various types in order to wipe out illiteracy and provide political, cultural, scientific, technical and professional education for workers, peasants, State functionaries and other working people. It encourages people to become educated through self-study.
>
> ***Literacy situation in Asia and the Pacific: country studies – China.*** Bangkok, Unesco, 1984. p. 15

In China, the provincial governments closely adhere to the explicit guiding statement of 'prevention, elimination, and improvement'. The Education Department of Henan Province, China, for example, states that the statement is used as a guideline in the provision of continuing education.

> In eliminating illiteracy, we adhere to the policy of 'prevention, elimination and improvement'.
>
> Close attention must be paid to making elementary education universal so as to stop all channels of giving birth to new illiterate persons. Efforts are made to get all the school-age children to attend full-time primary schools

> and continue their studies until they have graduated. The school-age children who cannot go to school or continue their studies for one reason or another and those over-age children below the age of 16 are to be taught how to read and write in study groups, in quick-method-of-achieving-literacy classes and evening classes, so that illiteracy will not be perpetuated.
>
> Stress must be laid on eliminating illiteracy or semi-illiteracy among young and middle-aged people. In this connection, effective teaching methods will be employed, so that illiteracy can be eliminated in the prime of life.
>
> Effective measures must be taken to help those who have just become literate to further their studies. In order to consolidate the achievements in anti-illiteracy campaigns and to prevent the students from becoming illiterate again, every endeavour is made to set up spare-time primary schools for them and also libraries and reading rooms where they can read newspapers and magazines or borrow books. Moreover, we organize such activities as composition competitions, recitations and coaching for self-study students.
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> China. Henan Province. Education Department. Editorial Group of Adult Education. ***Adult education in Henan Province.*** Zhengzhou, 1982. p.10.

It is noteworthy that when an explicit policy exists to provide guidelines for implementation, the rate of success is visibly high. This positive relationship is reflected in the successful implementation in China and Thailand.

In both cases cited here, it is clear that an unambiguous policy statement is interpreted into clear objectives or sets of guiding principles which, once closely adhered to, facilitates successful implementation of continuing education programmes. From these two examples, there seems to be a positive correlation between the existence of well-disseminated clear-cut policy statements and the degree of successful implementation.

In some countries in the region, continuing education may be practised, yet without government definitive directives or written policy statements. However, the government's intention or goal related to continuing education may be indirectly or implicitly detected. For example, a country might not have a policy statement but its commitment towards continuing education may be reflected in its generous budget allocation. Or, on the other hand, the government may establish certain infrastructure to support continuing education programmes thereby indirectly indicating its favourable consideration of continuing education. The National Council of Adult Education (NCAE) of New Zealand is a case in point. As a statutory body, it assists and advises on the development of continuing education in New Zealand. It has a long history of initiating successful projects in the non-formal sectors involving the development of strategies to meet learning needs not met by existing provisions. It may also be noted that although NCAE may try to be consistent with 'the current government policy', it operates without unambiguous policy statements as a guideline for programme implementation.

Dave (1986) describes the wide variety of government agencies in Malaysia which are involved in continuing education namely, the Ministries of Health; of Youth, Culture and Sports; of Labour and Manpower; of Welfare Services; of Information; of Home Affairs; of Land and Mines; and the Prime Minister's Department. She argues that the long list of government ministries which are mandated to provide non-formal/continuing education, indeed, indicates the importance the country assigns to it. Underlying her argument is the assumption that there exists, in Malaysia, an implicit policy to support continuing education on the part of the government.

The choice of agencies assigned or allowed by the government to provide continuing education may be indicative of the government's policy on the subject. According to Kajita (1987), voluntary organizations and education industry have a significant role to play in delivering continuing education to the public. He states:

> There are a large number of voluntary social education organizations and many of them such as PTAs, housewives' associations, YMCAs etc. organize the learning

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programmes for youth, adults and women in various forms

Kajita, Miharu. In: National Institute for Educational Research. Section for Educational Co-operation in Asia. ***Non-formal education in Asia and the Pacific; report,*** Tokyo, 1987. p. 17.

Similar is the case in Bangladesh, where adult education programmes which had been included in the nationwide mass education programme are now delegated to be the responsibility of the non-government voluntary organizations. This may be interpreted as Japan's and Bangladesh's implicit policies to share the burden of continuing education provision with the private sector in recognition of the private sector's capacity to deliver the service.

Growing awareness of the significant impact of continuing education on development

The developing countries of the region have been showing interest in and giving attention to continuing education. Appreciating the fact that continuing education is one of the major means for upgrading the education and awareness of their workers, cadres, and all other citizens, China has included continuing education as an integral part of the 'four modernizations'. Specifically, it forms a component of science and technology development.

In Nepal, although the role of non-formal/continuing education has only gained serious attention as a potential strategy for ensuring the permanent effect of literacy and skill-based programmes, the seventh plan (1985–1990) with a target of 39 per cent literacy has inevitably heightened the role of continuing education. The appreciation of continuing education is also reflected in expansion of more than 600 reading centres. (Belbase 1986).

At present, several non-formal/continuing education projects are ongoing simultaneously under the auspices of several agencies, governmental as well as non-governmental. The same is true of Pakistan and other countries in the region. Indeed, this seems a current and common trend. A need for a systematic policy to plan for continuing education is slowly yet constantly being felt.

Similarly, the Indian Government has made continuing education a part and parcel of the adult education programme, by including it in the Minimum Needs Programme of the Sixth Five-Year Plan.

Consequently, continuing education/adult education is receiving 'urgent' treatment together with rural health, rural water supply and nutrition, among others. (Sharma 1986).

The growing awareness of the impact of continuing education for development may, at times, be reflected in a country's new interpretation of existing policy statements. Iskandar (1986) discusses Indonesia's commitment to mass education citing the 1945 Constitution, which states that each citizen has the right to receive an education. This general statement is later elaborated on. As Iskandar put it:

> This goal is further delineated in the General Policy Directions (GBHN) that education should be a lifelong process and should be implemented within as well as outside the school system . . . These educational goals and objectives go beyond mere teaching of the literacy and numeracy skills; they encompass the development of positive attitudes towards learning the skills to identify and solve problems and the capacity to create new employment opportunities for themselves and others so that they can live a prosperous and happy life.
>
> (Iskandar et al. 1986: 109)

Regardless of their level of socio-economic development, there seems to be awareness of the need for some kind of policy statement on continuing education. Gautam (1986) points out that his country, Bangladesh, has yet to establish a national strategy for non-formal education/continuing education including a '. . . more realistic target of training 2.4 million adults'.

In Papua New Guinea, a recent survey on non-formal education reported in a document entitled ***The co-ordination, development and implementation of non-formal education in Papua New Guinea***, may be viewed as the country's preparation to undertake a new and more concrete policy formulation in continuing education which includes vocational training in indigeneous settings through indigeneous modes.

Like the developing countries in the region the developed ones are also beginning to be alerted to the emergence and the potential contribution of continuing education. While a concerted national policy might be missing in such countries as Australia and New Zealand, concerns are often expressed by, at least, professional organizations related to continuing education. Caldwell (1987) discussed the pleas of the Australian Association for Adult Education (AAAE) for greater recognition of adult education. These pleas may be interpreted to mean that while professional organizations of continuing education in Australia are well aware of the need for consolidated planning, the same level of awareness among policy-makers might still be desired.

Similarly the National Council of Adult Education (NCAE) has expressed its concerns about the present recognition of the role of non-formal/continuing education. Both Galloway (1986) and Caldwell (1986)[1] view insufficient government budgetary allocations for New Zealand and Australia as reflective of the needs for increasing recognition of continuing education.

Unlike New Zealand and Australia, Japan enjoys a high level of its public's appreciation of the value of continuing education as indicated in the 1985 NHK survey on the attitudes of the general public towards learning. (Kajita 1987).

In addition to the public's recognition of continuing education, the government's attention to lifelong education reflects in its policy formulation based on the recommendations of its advisory council.

The characteristics of the policy statements, when they exist, are also worth discussing. It has been noted that while some countries in the region provide, in addition to the policy statement, sets of guiding principles for policy implementation, others leave such interpretation to the programme implementers' discretion. The policy statements, themselves, may vary in the degree of detailed stipulation.

The need for co-ordination mechanisms

The general trend in the region is such that there is no one agency or ministry responsible for continuing education. In Japan, besides the Ministry of Education, other ministries including the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare and the Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing, run learning programmes to improve the quality of rural living.

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1. National Institute for Educational Research. Section for Educational Co-operation in Asia. ***Non-formal education in Asia and the Pacific; report.*** Tokyo, 1987.

Another country which involves several agencies in its implementation of continuing education is Thailand. As Swasdi Panich (1986) tells us,

> To ensure that every neo-literate has access to organize continuing education activities, the Ministry of Education in collaboration with eight other agencies involved in development such as the Departments of Health, Agriculture, Industrial Promotion, Co-operative Promotion and Prosecution, organize programmes entitled 'Promotion of Quality of Life for Neo-Literates and Graduates of Primary School).
>
> Kaw Swasdi Panich. ***After literacy . . . what? and how?*** Bulletin of the Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific, No. 27, 217–229, November 1986.

As a result of such co-operation, continuing education programmes have been successfully carried out at the sub-district level.

Thailand is an example of a country where inter-agency co-operation for continuing education is done all the way down to the grass roots level. Co-ordination is systematically done through one agency, i.e., the Department of Non-formal Education which, itself, keeps a very low profile (Swasdi Panich 1986).

Another example of inter-agency co-operation for implementing continuing education activities is Indonesia. In Indonesia, radio and television have been an effective channel for public information dissemination. The Directorate of Community Education (PENMAS) has also been working closely with the Centre for Communication Technology in Education and Culture (TKPK) in producing continuing education programmes. Two examples of the outcomes of such collaboration are a bi-weekly television programme of skill training which is nationally broadcast, and a radio programme on rural life and agricultural technology broadcast on national radio station for one and a half hours each week.

In the same vein, Griffith (1987) hints at the need for the Philippines to co-ordinate agencies in charge of the mass media, particularly radio and television, with the Ministry of Education in order that continuing education meets the country's needs to 'uplift rural living conditions'.

This hint is unambiguously spelled out in the mandate for the Bureau of Non-formal Education to:

> . . . co-ordinate with various agencies in providing opportunities for the acquisition of skills necessary to enhance and ensure continuing employability, efficiency, productivity, and competitiveness in the labour market . . .'.

The needs for co-ordination mechanisms therefore, are being felt across the entire region by practitioners as well as policy makers. This seems to be an issue of growing concern as the needs for explicit policy is increasingly felt. Future planning for continuing education may no longer be able to afford to ignore this issue.

Conclusion

It may be stated that the countries in Asia and the Pacific have appreciated the value of continuing education to an extent. Most countries have undertaken some form of continuing education, often classified under different names. One thing is certain, the scope, content, methodology and even the target population varies from country to country according to their conditions and needs. Despite the variety of continuing education programmes in the countries, a common characteristic across the region is that implementation, no matter how effective, is largely done in an extemporised manner.

Only a few countries in the region have formulated national plans or policies on continuing education. Even fewer countries have committed themselves to the formulated plans/policies by allocating appropriate budgetary provisions. In any case, whenever policies concerning continuing education are touched on, they are always related to other educational programmes, e.g. literacy, vocational training and leisure education.

Continuing education offers a viable alternative for mass education. The trend is such that in the near future, the need for serious and large scale continuing education will be so pressing that countries will need to not only include it in their national planning, but also seriously implement it as well.

Bulletin of the UNESCO Principal
Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific
Number 28, September 1987

RESOURCES FOR CONTINUING EDUCATION

by Leonardo de la Cruz

In this discussion on resources for continuing education, it should be noted that in the country materials available there is tremendous overlap among literacy, non-formal education, adult education and continuing education programmes. This discussion on resources for continuing education is written with these limitations in mind.

The resources for continuing education are from governments, non-governmental organizations, including voluntary organizations, and the international communities. These resources take various forms, such as funds, facilities and professional services.

Government

Funds. In most countries of the region the resources are in the form of budgetary allocations from the Government (e.g. federal/central, state/provincial). By and large Government funds for continuing education are coursed through an Office/Bureau of the Ministry of Education, e.g. Literacy and Mass Education Campaign in Pakistan; Bureau of Continuing Education in Philippines; Vocational and Village Development Centres in Papua New Guinea; Departments of Non-formal Education in Indonesia and Thailand; Department of Complementary Education in Viet Nam; Adult Education Divisions in China and Nepal; National Literacy Campaign in Burma; General Agency for Literacy Campaign in Afghanistan; and Adult Education Directorate in India.

In many countries, appropriate departments in other ministries are also allocated funds for continuing education, e.g. Community Development Division, Ministry of Natural and Rural Development in Malaysia; and the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare and Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fishery and Ministry of Labour in Japan. In the Republic of Korea, the funds are channelled through the Saemaul Movement.

In some countries funds for continuing education emanate at the state/provincial and lower governmental levels. In India, for instance, the state governments appropriate funds for continuing education. In China, the collectives bear the cost of salaries and subsidies for non-formal education teachers, while the heating and electricity expenses of schools used for continuing education are raised from funds of commune or brigade enterprise.

Facilities. Another resource is in the form of physical facilities used for continuing education. Some countries provide the use of university facilities (e.g. Allama Iqbal Open University in Pakistan; University of Life in the Philippines; Worker's Universities in China; Centre of Extension and Continuing Education, University Pertanian in Malaysia;and the Workers Education Unit, University of Colombo). There are also institutes which make their facilities available for use in continuing education, such as the Bangladesh Institute of Education and the Bangladesh Academy for Rural Development.

In some other countries, radio and television facilities are used in continuing education e.g. Japan Broadcasting Corporation in Japan; Radio and TV University in China; Australian Broadcasting Commission in Australia; and the Pakistan Broadcasting Corporation and Pakistan Television Corporation.

In many countries in the region the facilities of primary and secondary schools, as well as technical and community colleges are also used for continuing education.

Services. A very important resource for continuing education are the voluntary services of locally available resource persons on different aspects of continuing education. In some countries, voluntary services figure prominently, particularly with voluntary non-governmental organizations.

Non-governmental organizations

In many countries there are non-governmental, including voluntary organizations, that provide resources for continuing education. These include the All Pakistan Women's Association, Adult

Basic Education Society, Pakistan Girls Guide Association and the National Farm Guide Movement in Pakistan; the Suravi, Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee, Underprivileged Children Education Programme, Village Education Resource Centre, Masjid Mission, Masjid Shamai, Bangladesh Literacy Society, Ahsania Mission, Savar Gono Pathshala in Bangladesh; Parent Teachers Association, Young Men's Christian Association and Newspaper Companies in Japan; Workers Educational Association, Parent Centres, Marriage Guidance Council, and YWCA in New Zealand; church-based organizations such as those in Papua New Guinea; Foundation for Youth Development in the Philippines; and the Sarvadaya Movement and the Sri Lanka Women's Association in Sri Lanka. In India there are 175 voluntary agencies working in adult education.

International communities

A number of UN and other international organizations are providing resources for continuing education. These include UNICEF which supports the Comprehensive Access to Primary Education (CAPE) in India, and the Community Learning Centres in Bangladesh; ILO in support of the development of Employable Module Systems in Papua New Guinea; DANIDA (the Danish Government aid organization) which supports the Bangladesh Rural Development Board in Bangladesh; Fredrich-Ebert-Stiftung of the Federal Republic of Germany which supports the Sri Lanka Foundation Institute, TCCD (Holland); and Redd Barna (Norway), CIDA (Canada) and the Ford Foundation (United States of America) which support literacy programmes in Bangladesh.

Summary. Unfortunately in many countries the resources available to continuing education, whether they be from the government, non-governmental organizations or the international community remain grossly inadequate.

Bulletin of the UNESCO Principal
Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific
Number 28, September 1987

ORGANIZATION AND MANAGEMENT OF CONTINUING EDUCATION

by Tun Lwin

Introduction. The problems associated with the organization and management of continuing education are diverse. The innovative approaches and measures being used to cope with such problems, depend upon the conceptual framework within which continuing education is perceived, the policies and objectives of continuing education and the institutional mechanisms (formal, non-formal, informal) established to deliver educational services to meet the needs of the target learner groups. This has profound implications in terms of the role of government and non-government organizations, agencies and educational institutions as well as co-operation, collaboration and co-ordination among them.

Policies and objectives of continuing education. The policies and objectives of continuing education are the parameters with reference to which the continuing education programmes are formulated and operationalized. Today, most of the countries in the region have adopted their policies and objectives for continuing education, expressed in a variety of ways.

In the Australian context, adult education, community education, continuing and life-long learning are terms that are broadly understood. Three strands of adult and continuing education programmes can be identified: (a) vocationally oriented programmes; (b) general educational programmes for general interest, recreation or personal development; and (c) remedial programmes to assist the disadvantaged.

Adult education is a major component of China's education system, comprising education of all those who are engaged in productive work and the civil service, known today in general terms as peasants', workers' and cadres' education. As a matter of policy it has often been emphasized that,

> . . . for making China into a powerful modern socialist country, there is a great need not only for a large number of labour's reserve forces, but also for thousands of cadres, workers, farmers and other on-the-job staff to meet the programme requirements and become qualified employees.[1]

In general terms, educational efforts in Indonesia aim at changing human behaviour towards the direction desired – a true 'Pancasilaist'.[2] Such efforts are made through both school education and out-of-school education dealing with the following contents: (i) knowledge or information needed in life; (ii) skill to be used to gain sufficient income; and (iii) directions of attitude in mental development and renovation.

The components of non-formal education which bear on the concept of continuing education are (i) re-education; and (ii) follow-up education. The task of re-education in out-of-school education also means the re-culturization of the Indonesian. The targets of follow-up education are those who have received formal education but for some reasons are not able to continue their education nor yet gain employment. Follow-up education can also be interpreted as education for those who already have a job, but feel the need to increase the quality and productivity of their work.

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In Japan, education is classified into three categories, namely, home education, school education and social education, on the basis of places of its undertaking and target population. Social education in Japan is defined as systematic educational activities provided

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1. Paper presented by Chinese participants Mr. Yin Mingfa and Mr. Tang Guomin at the Regional Workshop on Non-formal Education in Asia and Pacific held at the National Institute for Educational Research (NIER), Tokyo, Japan 11-28 November 1986.

2. 'Five-principles of conduct'.

mainly for youth and adults including physical education and recreational activities, but excluding educational activities conducted as educational programmes at school. That is, social education includes various systematic learning activities conducted on every occasion and at any place outside school education. Recent reform measures include reorganization of the educational system with a transition to a system of life-long learning as the core element.

In New Zealand, the National Council of Adult Education established a Life-long Learning Task Force charged to review the allocation of resources to life-long learning in line with the Government's social equity policies. According to the working definition of the Task Force, 'Non-formal learning occurs in a variety of settings. It differs from informal learning in that it is initiated by members of the community perceiving a learning need . . .'

As can be seen from the above, the continuing education policies of countries in the region vary, much in the same manner as in the definition and concept of continuing education itself. However, there are clear indications that countries are making significant efforts to articulate or initiate continuing education programmes to meet the felt needs of various learner groups in their respective countries.

Organizational structures, management, mechanisms and institutional arrangements. Provision of continuing education varies in different countries depending upon the target audience and the programme objectives. By the same token, the use of organizational structures, management mechanisms and institutional arrangements as delivery systems vary considerably.

In Australia, for example, there are evening colleges in various states which usually use the premises of secondary schools to conduct their courses. These institutions operate under the authority of the relevant Department of Education but generally they are separated administratively from the day-time secondary school from which they operate. Parallel to this, the institutional arrangements which are most closely identified with the provision of adult continuing education in Australia are the Technical and Further Education Colleges (TAFE). These TAFE Colleges have links with industry and provide a degree of continuing education in the form of short courses aimed at giving additional vocational skills and an updated knowledge of technology to those who join such courses. These TAFE Colleges also offer recreational courses including programmes in hobbies, home handicrafts, self-expression and cultural activities.

Adult and continuing education programmes are also offered at Australian Universities and Colleges of Advanced Education. The vast majority of enrolments are in professional development courses, although some are in general education programmes.

As early as 1963 the Government of Bangladesh (then East Pakistan) set up an Adult Literacy Cell in the Education Directorate and launched a pilot project on adult education in collaboration with the Academy for Rural Development in Comilla. Today there are a number of non-formal education programmes in the country, bearing the character of continuing education; some of these are undertaken by government and others by non-governmental organizations.

The institutional mechanism for implementation of these programmes is featured by a system of project management, since many of them are implemented on an 'experimental' or 'pilot' scale. These include the Chittagong University Rural Development Project; Suravi Non-formal Education Project; Self-help Project of A.H. College, Bogra; Bangladesh Institute of Distance Education; the Community School Project; Agricultural University Extension Project; Kotwali Thana, Mymensingh; and Village Education Resource Centre.

In Thailand, the Non-formal Education Department was established in the Ministry of Education in 1979 with well defined functions and responsibilities comprising (i) Non-formal Educational Development (NFE) Division; (ii) Centre for Educational Technology; (iii) the Educational Supervisory Unit; (iv) Planning and Research Division; (v) Operations Division; (vi) Centre for Educational Museums; and (vii) NFE Centre for External Students. In addition to implementing the policy of providing basic education, news and information and skills training, the Non-formal Education Department is also responsible for planning, research and co-ordination of the activities of other private and governmental agencies in the field of non-formal education.

The institutional arrangements are either relatively simple, based on a project management model, as in the case of the less developed member countries of the region, or rather elaborate and complex based on more formal organizational structures, as in the case of more advanced countries in the region.

Inter-agency co-ordination, monitoring and evaluation of continuing education programmes. It may be observed from the foregoing that a variety of agencies and organizations may be involved in the continuing education programmes of each country. While the Ministry of Education assumes the major responsibilities for imparting continuing education, other Ministries and/or Departments, such as Ministry of Agriculture, Rural Development and Rural Industries; or Ministry of Manpower, as well as non-governmental voluntary organizations may also have an important role to play in these programmes.

The Malaysian experience is a case in point. In Malaysia, the major types and components of non-formal education are conducted by the following ministries and government agencies:

- a) Ministry of National and Rural Development
    - i) Community Development Division
    - ii) Council of Trust for the Indigenous People
- b) Ministry of Agriculture
    - i) Department of Agriculture
    - ii) Department of Veterinary
    - iii) Department of Fishery
- c) Ministry of Health
- d) Ministry of Youth, Culture and Sports
- e) Ministry of Labour and Manpower
    - – Manpower Department
- f) Ministry of Welfare Services
- g) Prime Minister's Department
    - i) Department of National Unity
    - ii) Institute of Public Administration
- h) Ministry of Information
- i) Ministry of Home Affairs
- j) Ministry of Land and Mines

Malaysian NFE programmes implemented at the rural level by the Community Development Division of the Ministry of National and Rural Development include community education (e.g. rural libraries, functional literacy, Islamic religious class and vocational training) and family development activities (e.g. pre-school services, home economics, and family life education). The extension programmes of the Ministry of Agriculture include consumer education, home management, food processing and income-generating activities; moral and civics education; technical services in agriculture, fishery, veterinary activities; and the programmes of the Health Department concern environmental sanitation, family health and nutrition education.

At the regional or national level, NFE programmes are offered at learning institutions. Such programmes include, among others, occupational skill training, commercial training, electronic data processing training, and national youth training. These types of programmes are mainly sponsored by the Manpower Department and the Ministry of Youth, Sports and Culture and others are sponsored by private organizations. Courses leading to public examinations of the Formal Education system are also organized by the private sector.

Each agency provides in-service training for its staff. The Institute of Public Administration provides a modular system of instruction in courses related to public services; the Centre of Extension and Continuing Education of University Pertanian Malaysia provides training to farmers and extension personnel in related fields; the KEMAS[1] Training Centres provide various courses for community Development workers and supervisors; and the Department of National Unity provides national solidarity activities aimed at promoting the concept of neighbourliness amongst the different ethnic groups and also caters to the pre-school service as one of its activities.

In India, the activities in the area of child and adult education outside the formal education system, would be legitimately called non-formal education, which, as a matter of convenience, is divided into non-formal education (for out-of-school children of the 6-14 age group) and adult education. The whole non-formal education programme consists of activities concerned with out-of-school children, out-of-university and/or college adults and the areas of continuing education. All these activities are undertaken by different agencies as shown below:

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[1] The Division of Community Development.

1. Agencies responsible for non-formal education geared to versal primary education for children aged 6-14 years not covered by formal schools:
    a) Ministry of Human Resources Development,
    b) State governments,
    c) Autonomous Institutions, e.g. National Council for Educational Research and Training (NCERT) and National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration (NIEPA),
    d) Voluntary agencies;
2. Agencies responsible for undertaking adult literacy programmes such as farmers' education, workers' education, functional literacy and special programmes for rural women, women's welfare and sports development programme:
    a) Ministry of Human Resources Development,
    b) State governments,
    c) Voluntary organizations;
3. Agencies responsible for continuing education programmes:
    a) Ministry of Information and Broadcasting (T.V., Radio),
    b) State governments and different universities under the Ministry of Human Resources Development (correspondence courses leading to university degrees),
    c) Ministry of Human Resources Development (Open University),
    d) Boards of Secondary Education (Open School (Secondary)),
    e) Ministry of Defence (in-service training programme for defence personnel),
    f) Private Tutorial Colleges (preparation of candidates for admission to professional/technical colleges; entry examinations for civil and other services), and

4. Agencies responsible for extension programmes, e.g. agricultural extension, health extension, co-operative extension:
    a) Development agencies under respective central ministries and the states.

In Thailand, education is generally looked upon as a life-long process consisting of basic education; news and information and skills training; and non-formal education which includes education and training activities to provide basic education, undertaken outside the formal school system, such as:

1. Functional literacy programmes; and
2. Continuing education programmes;
    a) Functional education programmes,
    b) Radio and correspondence programmes,
    c) Non-formal education for external students.

Programmes to provide news and information to people to keep them abreast with the new developments in science and technology and the changing society include: reading centres, mobile libraries, mobile audio-visual units, science and natural history museums, planetarium, educational radio, T.V. and video programmes.

The programmes for skills training are:

1. Interest group programme (skills requiring less than 30 hours of training);
2. Short-term vocational training (100-300 hours) including Industrial Arts, Home Economics, Business Administration;
3. Long-term training (4-5 months) such as Agriculture and secondary products; and
4. Specific training programmes.

In Japan, non-formal education programmes may be classified as:

1. Social education learning programmes conducted/financed by Ministry of Education, Science and Culture (MOE) and local boards of education e.g. programmes for home education, women education, youth education, adult education, and education for the aged.

2. Learning programmes conducted/financed by local public entities and the ministries other than MOE, e.g.
   a) Classes for Maternity and Child Care (Ministry of Health and Social Welfare);
   b) Learning programmes for improvement of rural life (Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry); and
   c) Learning programmes implemented by prefectural municipal governments — e.g. courses on international understanding.
3. Programmes provided by voluntary organizations and the education service industry:
   a) Learning programmes for youth, adults and women organized by voluntary social education organizations such as parent/teacher/associations, housewive's associations, YMCA's; and
   b) Learning programmes offered by the education service industry e.g. skills/development for language and computer, general cultural study for classics in literature and painting, yoga, cooking and sports.
4. Extension courses provided by secondary schools, universities and junior colleges for the general public.
5. Non-formal programmes in vocational technical education, e.g.
   a) Special training schools and miscellaneous schools under MOE;
   b) Vocational training institutes under the Ministry of Labour; and
   c) Agricultural training facilities for young farmers administered by Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fishery.
6. Non-formal education programmes by use of broadcasting and correspondence.

In the Philippines, the Bureau of continuing education of the Ministry of Education and Culture is primarily responsible for planning, policy formulation and monitoring activities of non-formal education. Since 1985, the emphasis of non-formal education is centred on the twin programmes of functional literacy and livelihood skills development. Apart from the projects implemented under these programmes, the Bureau also implemented some special programmes/projects, such as Dissemination of Science and Technology Knowledge for Out-of-School Activities Designed for Young People; Non-formal Education for Women; Strengthening of Parent Education; and implementation of Development of a Co-ordinated Educational Intervention System for Improving the Quality of Life (DELSILIFE).

The activities under continuing education programmes being implemented in countries of the region are many faceted, involving government ministries, agencies and non-governmental organizations. In such multi-ministry or multi-agency relationships, co-ordination and monitoring of implementation processes naturally pose real problems. Concerted efforts towards inter-agency co-ordination would be an important initial step. If such a policy already exists, the operative mechanisms adopted may vary. In some instances, the mechanism may simply take the form of an inter-agency co-ordination committee in which the concerned agencies are represented. In other instances, some informal arrangements for co-ordination may gradually evolve. Yet in other instances, some complex inter-agency relationships may be more explicitly defined. In any case, the work of co-ordination generally extends across the implementation processes, monitoring and evaluation and accountability. It is perhaps one of the most crucial areas where the organization and management of continuing education needs to be further strengthened with a view to ensuring maximum effectiveness in the implementation of continuing education programmes.

Bulletin of the UNESCO Principal
Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific
Number 28, September 1987

CONTINUING EDUCATION: CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT AND TRAINING OF PERSONNEL

by Prem Kasaju

Introduction

An attempt is made here to analyse the experiences related to the important aspects of delivery mechanisms, curriculum (including teaching/learning materials) and training of teachers for non-formal/ continuing education in selected countries of the Asia and Pacific region. The presentation is based on the specialist papers which were presented by participants from 15 countries of the region, namely Australia, Bangladesh, China, India, Indonesia, Japan, Malaysia, Nepal, New Zealand, Pakistan, Papua New Guinea, the Philippines, the Republic of Korea, Sri Lanka and Thailand, at a Regional Workshop organized by the National Institute of Educational Research (NIER) Tokyo, Japan, in 1986, within the framework of the Asia and Pacific Programme of Educational Innovation for Development (APEID).

The evolution of the concept of non-formal/continuing education is founded on the principle of equity, – that people should receive equal opportunity for learning and development, contributing eventually to a larger society comprising of self-reliant, self-sufficient and self-disciplined citizenry. In particular, it is seen to be instrumental in enhancing and increasing income-earning capacity of the individual members and the overall improvement of the quality of life of people.

In many countries it is seen that non-formal and continuing education have received little mention in the Government plans; the allocation of funds and resources has been proportionately very low and support and delivery mechanisms very much lacking. It is generally recognized that incentives given to NFE organizers, extension service workers, and teachers are quite inadequate and support given to them in their work is lukewarm.

Continuing education

Curricula and teaching/learning designs are often too loosely planned and ***ad hoc.*** The shortage of trained personnel, part-time and full-time voluntary workers is a major problem faced by most of the countries in their bid for popularization and promotion of non-formal and continuing education programmes. Well planned schemes for training teachers and supervisors are disappointingly lacking.

In general, there are two sets of major needs articulated in NFE programmes in the countries. These are predominantly linked to campaigns for the eradication of illiteracy and improvement of the quality of life. The second emphasis is on universalization of primary education in countries which have not fully achieved UPE. Increasingly these programmes stress skill development and education of the out-of-school youth and adults in a perspective of lifelong education.

The illustrative aspects emphasized by various non-formal/continuing education programmes in the countries are of the following nature:

a) Bringing the out-of-school children and the youth the network of NFE;
b) Reinforcing NFE for in-school activities for the children and youth;
c) Strengthening of moral and values education and also physical education for both in school and out-of-school children and youth;
d) Using NFE for improving the achievement level of children/youth in formal education;
e) NFE for unemployed youth;
f) NFE for fostering national identity;
g) Linking pre-school education with NFE and formal education;
h) Education for the handicapped through NFE; and
i) Parental education.

Curriculum and learning materials

A wide variety of programmes have been developed and tried out in the countries on varying scales. The very principles advocated and cherished in non-formal and continuing education are grounded on the premise that their contents and methodologies must be linked to the needs of the learner by taking into account the individual variations in given socio-economic and educational contexts. The efforts are therefore, concentrated on developing programmes and materials which respond to the learning needs of the recipients and participants in these programmes. Some of the innovative programmes and their non-formal and continuing education features are reflected in the following illustrative programmes reported in the country specialist papers:

Curriculum development

a) Curriculum for the drop-outs and unenrolled children in the age group 6 – 14 years (India);

b) Various types of NFE curricula tailored for different interest groups (India and Thailand);

c) Programmes based on curricula in different vocational areas based on interest groups (Papua New Guinea); and

d) Curricula developed to meet lifelong educational needs (Japan).

Materials development

a) Kejar Pakets and self-learning packages (Indonesia and Pakistan);

b) Open University Programme (Pakistan, Sri Lanka, China);

c) NFE programme broadcasts and correspondences (Japan);

d) Self-learning modules (India);

e) Need and problem-based instructional materials (India);

f) Primary science kits adapted to self-learning needs (India); and

g) Special textbooks for correspondence high schools (Republic of Korea).

Motivation and assessment

a) Use of mass media in motivating the community to learn (India);

b) Comprehensive access to primary education (India);

c) Small farmer education package (Sri Lanka);

d) Programmes for rural neo-literate and primary school-leavers (Thailand); and

e) Youth camps programmes (Republic of Korea).

The issues and concerns frequently raised on aspects related to the design and development of curriculum and learning materials for non-formal and continuing education are:

a) How can a flexible and relevant curriculum to meet the participants' learning needs be ensured?

b) How can the NFE curriculum be made to focus on diversified community based development needs which would contribute to economic self-reliance?

c) How can skills/information promoting the use and adaptation of local and new technologies for development be provided?

d) How can the shortage of trained personnel be met to effectively carry out wide variety of non-formal and continuing education programmes?

e) How can equivalence between non-formal and continuing programmes be established?

Clearly, NFE and continuing programmes in the countries appear to stress the promotion of self-employment skills and development of open competence. Auto-learning materials are gaining popularity and and their use is becoming more and more common in developing vocational and technical skills. Value development is also becoming a new area of emphasis in non-formal and continuing education programmes. It is considered that non-formal and continuing education programmes can become quite instrumental in bridging gaps between practices, the standards and values expected of the citizens through moral education components, well articulated and incorporated in non-formal and continuing education programmes. Mass media, especially video films, cinemas and popular journals and newspapers seem to have great potential for moulding values positively if properly tailored. However, there are growing concerns that their indiscriminate use can easily make adverse and damaging effects on children and young adults. The optimal and satisfactory use of mass media for non-formal and continuing education can only be ensured through close working partnerships between various educational agencies, industries, and entrepreneurs.

The key principle on which the concept of non-formal and continuing education is founded is that it should fully take into account the felt needs, rather than the ascribed needs of the community. To this end, some countries, have already moved towards decentralization of curriculum development and design to the state and provincial levels and through establishment of district institutes of education and training and other equivalent agencies.

Genuine and meaningful involvement of the community is considered a must for successful implementation and improvement of the quality of non-formal and continuing education programmes. To respond well to the priority needs of the communities, a programme must involve its various constituencies in its process of development. However, in practice, it is reported that involvement of the community, in important exercises such as the development of curricular and learning materials, more or less remain at the theoretical and hence become non-operational, although in some countries, in principle, such functions have already been decentralized. Specialists are of the opinion that effective mechanisms and methods must be evolved to optimize the involvement of communities in the planning and design of non-formal and continuing education programmes.

It is reported that in so-called homogeneous countries the trend is on a centralized operation. But, in large countries which have a predominance of multilingual and multi-ethnic societies, they have moved towards greater decentralization at the state, provincial and district levels. In certain core areas, such as national languages, national identity, moral and values education, however, centralization is favoured and is in practice.

As pointed out earlier mass media is seen as a very potent vehicle for optimizing the effects of non-formal and continuing education but its effective use must be ensured to reach the larger group of learners. The content offered through various media must be tailored to the needs and learning levels of illiterates and the neoliterates and the skills development needs of the learners on a larger scale. Countries have also reported that there is increased use of audio-visual aids, rural libraries, mobile libraries, TV and radios for community centres. The mass media's impact therefore, must be enhanced with judicious co-ordination between various educational and development agencies involved in NFE and the media.

Training of teachers and supervisors

Teacher preparation on a large scale is one of the major problems faced in non-formal and continuing education programmes. The provisions available for training teachers and supervisors in the countries are, in many cases ***ad hoc***, their scope, emphases, contents and duration are quite often inadequately defined and planned. The methodologies applied in the training are reported to be ritualistic, lacking emphasis on substantive and methodological contents. In many instances, personnel who already have a full workload in formal education programmes, are recruited and inducted in NFE programmes without training. Training and retraining opportunities are quite limited.

In response to the problem related to the training and shortage of teachers and supervisors, one noticeable trend is the establishment of some forms of training institutes/centres for NFE teacher training at the state, province and district levels. A complementary approach which is being attempted is development of training manuals and instructional materials for training teachers of non-formal education programmes.

A few illustrative and innovative efforts in the countries, to prepare non-formal and continuing personnel are:

a) The varied and flexible duration of NFE personnel training (India);

b) Involvement of personnel of other development agencies in training of NFE personnel (India);

c) Specific training manuals, materials and AV aids for NFE personnel (India);

d) Organization of training programmes through linkages between and among training agencies concerned with NFE (Sri Lanka);

e) One-year course for artisans at Port Moresby In-service College (Papua New Guinea); and

f) Special manuals, handbooks and working papers developed for teaching in non-formal and continuing education programmes (Sri Lanka).

One growing concern is that the formal school teachers, if they are to be inducted as NFE personnel, must be provided intensive pre-service training to enable them to cope with the demands of NFE.

It is also recognized that more intensive and continuous supervision systems should be instituted for NFE and continuing education programmes. As in the case of teachers, the problems faced are a lack of those with the training and interest to work as supervisors; and of programmes which cater to the job needs and requirements of supervisors working in NFE.

Delivery mechanisms

Non-formal and continuing education programmes are conducted by a wide variety of educational and other area related agencies and institutions in the countries of the region. These include governmental, semi-governmental bodies, development ministries, colleges, universities, voluntary organizations and industries. The contents and methodologies, in their scope, and levels of emphasis also vary widely, depending on the clientele and agencies/institutions organizing the programmes. The common emphases of non-formal and continuing education programmes however, are based on the need for renewal and reinforcement of learning and acquisition of knowledge and skills for lifelong growth and development.

Agencies and institutions typically engaged in the promotion of non-formal/continuing education as reported by country specialists are: (a) community-based education centres; (b) adult and community education related agencies; (c) the workers' educational association and other organizations concerned with community education; (d) libraries, museums and art galleries; (e) consulting agencies; (f) private industries, church and cultural groups; (g) state and federal government departments; (h) professional bodies; (i) trade union training authorities; (j) broadcasting commissions and media related agencies; (k) morning and evening colleges; (l) technical and further education (TAFE) colleges; and (m) universities and colleges of advanced education.

Continuing education

Increasingly, the popular trend is to utilize community-based locations such as school buildings, local development centres, and places of religion to conduct non-formal/continuing education programmes.

A number of countries have introduced open universities, correspondence schools, and educational TV channels. Increasing use can also be seen of radio for broadcasting of educational programmes. Some countries are also using satellites for educational broadcasting and teacher training, like China and Thailand, as well as the University of the South Pacific which serves 11 countries in the Pacific. Newspapers serve as a very popular medium on which people rely for their information and offers promise for innovative use in non-formal and continuing education programmes.

Bulletin of the UNESCO Principal
Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific
Number 28, September 1987

LINKAGE BETWEEN FORMAL AND NON–FORMAL EDUCATION AND INTERFACE BETWEEN EDUCATION AND WORK THROUGH CONTINUING EDUCATION

by M.A. Qureshi

The learning process in a society generally uses three channels, viz., formal, informal and non-formal education which operate side by side. All these channels are at present functioning as separate entities in many countries of the Asia and Pacific region. This watertight compartmentalization has led to duplication of effort and waste of scarce resources. Sometimes these three modes of learning have even been found to be working at cross purposes. Educational planners and administrators in the region are now making efforts, with varying degrees of success, to develop a comprehensive learning system through co-ordinated planning and establish complementarity between the three modes of learning so as to provide the most appropriate responses to their changing societal needs.

During a Regional Seminar on Co-ordinated Planning and Complementarity between Formal and Non-Formal Education held at Bangkok in 1985[1] and a Regional Workshop on Non-Formal Education in Asia and the Pacific organized by the National Institute of Educational Research (Japan) in 1986[2], the participants from a number of countries in the region shared their country experiences in co-ordinated planning and complementarity between formal and non-formal education. Generally, formal education, informal education and non-formal education, are defined in the countries of the region according to the following agreed principles.

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1. Japan. National Institute for Educational Research. Section for Educational Co-operation in Asia. ***Non-formal education in Asia and the Pacific; report of a workshop.*** Tokyo, 1987. 102 p.

2. APEID Regional Operational Seminar on Co-ordinated Planning and Complimentarity between Formal and Non-Formal Education, Bangkok and Southern Thailand, 22-31 October 1985. ***Formal and non-formal education: co-ordination and complementarity; report of the seminar.*** Bangkok, Unesco, 1986. 66 p.

35/Two

Formal education means organization of education through institutional infrastructure like schools, colleges and universities. It involves sequential learning structures which are graded and standardized leading to certification to achieve pre-determined objectives in terms of certain desirable changes in learners.

Informal education, which is also sometimes called 'incidental' education, refers to unorganized education acquired during the entire life span of an individual through interaction with parents and siblings and with other members of the society, or through engaging in work and exposure to social events and movements and through mass media such as newspapers, radio and television.

Non-formal education differs from formal education in the sense that it takes place outside the traditional framework of the formal system. This characteristic is also shared by informal education. However, like formal education, non-formal education is organized and has pre-determined objectives. It also has certain sequential learning structures which are not necessarily graded. While formal education is rigid and is characterized by uniformity to a large extent, the hallmark of non-formal education is its flexibility in terms of time and duration of learning, age group of learners, content, methodology of instruction and evaluation procedures.

The concept of co-ordinated planning implies interaction among the functionaries of all departments and agencies which are concerned with formal and non-formal education at different levels, including functionaries of those departments and non-governmental organizations which deal with development programmes, with a view to optimal utilization of resources through the formulation of integrated plans and implementation, monitoring and evaluation of those plans.

The concept of complementarity means bringing about mutual support between formal and non-formal education in respect of mobilization and use of physical facilities, personnel, administrative structures, curriculum and instructional materials, training of teachers and supervisors and evaluation/certification procedures and techniques that have developed within each mode.

The following major common concerns emerged in both the regional meetings held recently:

a) There is generally no definite systematic planning mechanism to co-ordinate formal and non-formal education;

b) There is lack of awareness of the potential role that non-formal education can play, and the benefit of complementarity between the two modes among planners, implementors and media personnel;

c) Data bases and research bases for integrated planning are very weak and remain to be improved;

d) Non-formal education is still considered as an inferior mode of education – hence the imbalance in budget allocation, provision of physical facilities, personnel and teaching materials;

e) The physical facilities of the formal sector are not being fully shared with the non-formal sector;

f) The non-formal mode is used mainly for literacy programmes and basic skills training, but not so much in science education;

g) Personnel from the formal sector are used for non-formal education without adequate reorientation and training; and

h) Relevant curricula and teaching/learning materials specifically prepared for non-formal education are lacking.

Innovative experiences and approaches

Two major areas of innovative experiences and approaches related to, (a) work and business including skill training; and (b) community development and leisure; are taking place in the countries of the region.

Work and business including skill training. The concept of lifelong education for work and business, including skill training, is being emphasized or reiterated in most of the countries of the region. The modern concept of NFE is the development of life as a whole. It also considers the life circle from working experiences to learning activities. It signifies learning as a part of life. The following innovative practices/experiences deserve particular mention.

Improvement in the quality of life. The aim of this innovative practice can be achieved by: (i) giving incentives to workers; (ii) establishment of training and retraining workshops; (iii) rural education and development centres; (iv) self-reliant home management programmes; (v) community schools for out-of-school youth; (vi) development of handicraft centres; and (vii) establishment of polyvalent centres, etc.

The improvement of the quality of life of the people has been the main thrust of NFE programmes in most countries of the region. Although the practices applied vary in one way or another, but it cannot be denied that the goals are directed towards the needs of the target group.

Work oriented programmes for socio-economic development and national needs. Work-oriented programmes acquired through NFE skill training activities must be geared to the changing technological as well as societal needs of a particular country, in order to generate better income for the greater mass of the learners. This programme has been found to be effective in many countries of Asia and the Pacific such as work oriented programmes in Indonesia, Malaysia and the Philippines under the sponsorship of the Australian Government.

Programme for distance learning. A distance learning delivery system is provided for all levels of education, both formal and non-formal, to improve skill training and the academic qualities needed by individuals and groups in rural areas and specific groups of people in the urban areas. There are many kinds of programmes in India, Pakistan, China, Japan, Philippines and so on. These programmes work both for formal and non-formal education with the use of multi-media approaches.

Establishment of community learning centres. The main purpose of these non-formal education learning centres is to satisfy social as well as individual needs through skill development for the attainment of a better quality of life. Some of the major NFE programmes initiated in different participating countries are reading centres; community resource learning centres; learning centres; and community participation centres.

Establishment of mother tongue language section. Developing countries are facing the problem of inadequate knowledge to improve the life condition of the people in their own countries. Modern technologies and attitudes towards new methods coming from developed countries should be translated into the mother tongue languages of the respective countries. Therefore it is encouraged that the organization of a section for the translation of innovative practices and experiences from other developed countries should be established in order to help the out-of-school learners.

This programme may be an appropriate one in developing countries, some countries having already established these innovative sections, namely, translation section and translation centres.

Unification of the people for a common cause. The developing countries are facing the problem of lack of proper attitudes towards the attainment of national unity. The organization of non-formal education activities for skill development may help attain that unity. This programme is related to the concept of national integration. Such kinds of programmes have not been established in the Member States but have occurred in some other countries.

Modified technology for business firms and agricultural sector. This innovation aims at the development of technology that will suit the needs of particular establishments. A study of different country experiences reveals the following practices: modified technology for the agricultural sector; modern farm project; modified technology for manpower and youth councils; and transmission of technology in agriculture for farmers.

Programme for retired people. The vocational programmes for those who have reached normal retirement age should be looked into. Many retired persons like to remain active and often look for a job in a new field. The NFE programmes should provide some learning activities to meet their needs. The following are some of the programmes that have been launched: community education for senior citizens; vocational education for the elders; training centres for the retired people, and recreation centres for adults.

Introduction of quality control (QC) and just-in-time (JIT) techniques through the non-formal education activities. These techniques aim to improve the quality of work by using group dynamics, sharing of ideas and work attitudes. They have been implemented in Japan and have greatly contributed to the development of that society. Some countries have also implemented such programmes as, personnel training programme centres for NFE staff members. and instructional models for training personnel.

Entrepreneurship programmes for NFE clientele to prepare them for managerial types of jobs. This programme requires a high degree of community involvement and participation in helping to meet manpower requirements and motivate positive attitudes towards self-improvement of present and future workers. This has been made possible through implementation of the following representative practices in different countries: bus drivers and inspectors improvement skills; intensive clientele programme for skill development; and post-literacy programmes for workers.

Developing printed material for skill training work activities for income generating skills. In many countries, both in the private and public sector, printed material is prepared on certain special topics such as health, agriculture and nutrition. The purpose is to provide necessary information to the people for their better living and to improve their earning potential. These innovations can be illustrated in the following activities: wall newspapers for rural development; agriculture news; continuing studies newsletters; and population education newsletters.

Community development and leisure

Concept/definition of community development. The term community development can be viewed in several ways. Some countries view community development at macro and micro levels while others define it in terms of rural and urban sectors. Community development refers to a process whereby the combined efforts of the government and the people are used to promote social, economic, political and cultural development. It is a process implying decentralization, local growth and power sharing. It also denotes knowledge of the community and its resources, with leadership springing from that community. The term 'community' could describe the total population in a geographical area or district. Alternatively, it could mean the aggregate of groups of different interests or associations, such as labour, women, youths and work oriented groups. The word, 'development' suggests a process of growth in economic, cultural, social, moral and political areas.

Meaning/character of community development. Most countries agree that community development should aim at making the district more self-sufficient and more responsible for its own future. The community should rely less and less on financial support from regional, provincial or central governments. The community should feel the desire to improve the following situations for better living. They are:

i) Health of all its citizens;
ii) Job opportunities for those who wish to work;
iii) Schooling and education opportunities for all its members;
iv) Demonstration of decision-making;
v) Community and local leadership;
vi) Opportunities for leisure, happiness and satisfaction; and
vii) Motivation of community and the development of self-pride.

Most countries also agree that community development is an important element in national development, and likewise, national development contributes to community development.

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Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific
Number 28, September 1987

CONCEPT OF CONTINUING EDUCATION IN DIFFERENT CONTEXTS

by T.M. Sakya

UNESCO's Programme in Asia and the Pacific covers 31 countries from Japan to Turkey, from the Union of Soviet Socialist Republic to New Zealand. The countries are different culturally, economically and politically. The region is marked by diversity rather than uniformity. It is so diverse that any attempt to define the region is difficult and complex.[1]

> Asia in simple geographic terms encompasses Europe. So if the two are to be set apart from each other, there must be sufficient common denominators on each side of the Ural line which do not exist on the other. Does Asia have such a common identity, some positive denominators? Or is it too big, the home of too many civilizations? If so, Asia exists only in the negative sense of being non-European – which is the European definition.
>
> *(Bowring: 1987)*

Continuing education is a relatively new idea in many developing countries in the region. In the countries where significant progress has been made in the universalization of primary education and the eradication of illiteracy, continuing education programmes have gained importance.

Since continuing education comprises post primary and post literacy programmes, the attendants are not so much the children, but youths and adults. Therefore, like the region itself, the terminology used is widely varied. A research finding of the UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific conducted in 1980 states:

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[1] Bowring, Philip. 'What is Asia?, ' ***Far Eastern Economic Review***: 30-31, 12 February 1987.

> There is considerable diversity in the use of terms referring to the education of adults within the region. Moreover, the terms used and the meanings attached to them are changing in several countries, reflecting change in actual policy, priorities and programmes. Some countries use 'adult education' or an equivalent term in a very comprehensive manner; others have a precise and restricted meaning, such as 'basic education for adults'. The term 'non-formal education' has recently been adopted in several countries and can be used in more than one sense.[1]

If we compare the Survey Report of Adult Education in 1980 and the Report of the Regional Workshop on Non-formal Education in 1986 the situation has not changed.[2]

In Australia, 'adult education', 'community education'. 'continuing education' and 'lifelong learning' are broadly used depending upon the types of programmes being undertaken. Bangladesh uses the term 'Non-formal education' for the supplementary second chance education for the youths and adults and the term 'Adult education' for literacy and post-literacy programme for the adults.

China adopts multiple forms, channels, levels and standards to provide continuing education to its vast number of peasants, workers and cadres. Here the term 'spare time education' is used, but recently terms like 'further education' 'follow-up education', 'community education' and 'lifelong education' are increasingly used.

India calls education the 'second chance education' for the children and youths in the 6 to 14 age group while the terms 'adult education' and 'continuing education' are used for literacy, post-literacy and vocational training for adults.

In Indonesia, 'non-formal education' is used in a very comprehensive way to include community education, and apprenticeships for youths, etc. In Japan, the social education programme is very common and recently lifelong education programmes are on

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1. 'Adult education in Asia and the Pacific,' ***Bulletin of the Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific*** (Special issue): i-xlix, 1-205, January 1982.

2. Japan. National Institute for Educational Research. Section for Educational Co-operation in Asia. ***Non-formal education in Asia and the Pacific; report of a workshop.*** Tokyo, 1987. 102 p.

the increase. The Community Development Division of National and Rural Development in Malaysia conducts a non-formal adult education programme. This shows recent trends of change to 'continuing education' and 'lifelong education'. Maldives uses the term 'non-formal education' for continuing education for youths and adults and 'non-formal education' and 'adult education' are interchangeable as they are used in Nepal.

In 1984, the National Council of Adult Education, New Zealand established its Lifelong Learning Task Force. In its 1985 report, the Task Force has defined non-formal education as, '. . . occurring in a variety of settings, it differs from informal learning in that it is initiated by members of the community perceiving a learning need. Non-formal learning remains under the control of the participants'.

Pakistan uses the term 'non-formal education' for rural development oriented education as well as mass education for the adults. The Philippines has been using the terms 'continuing education' and 'non-formal education' for the whole range of complementary and supplementary education programmes for youths and adults. Non-formal education in Papua New Guinea covers a very wide scope by gathering under one umbrella, all the existing programmes everywhere around the country. The Republic of Korea passed the Adult Education Law in 1982 under which a variety of non-formal adult education and youth training has since been provided. Sri Lanka uses the 'adult education' title for a variety of non-formal education programmes run by the Government and non-governmental organizations. Thailand's 'non-formal education' is well known in the region under which it organizes short term courses as well as degree awarding programme leading to admission to university. In Viet Nam, all continuing education programmes are termed 'complementary education'.

With the increasing use of modern communication technologies for education, continuing education is also related very closely to distance education. Almost all countries in the region conduct some part of their continuing education programme through radio and television either directly by the educational institutions or by developmental agencies.

While acknowledging the vast range of diversities in the scope and nature of adult education programmes in the region, the

Regional Seminar on Adult Education and Development in Asia and the Pacific (Bangkok, 1980) attempted to classify them into broad categories of programmes addressed to, survival growth, remedial and anticipatory needs.

Profound change is taking place in Asia and the Pacific, affecting all people in the region. Those dynamic forces of change have great bearing on continuing and other levels of education.

Taking into account these changes and development in the region, the Regional Consultation Meeting held in May 1983 had recommended to the Fourth International Conference on Adult Education in 1985 that:

> All ages should have the opportunity to meet their learning needs, and to seek self-reliance, equality and effective living through education. It implies that lifelong education should be available not only to those who have already a reasonable quality of life but also the poorest of the poor. It insists that women should have equality of educational opportunity along with men.

The Fourth International Conference on Adult Education (Paris, March 1985) agreed that implementation of the right to education provided the foundation and support for the actual process of the democratization of education, and was a right that would be guaranteed to everybody including adults of all ages.

The launching of the Asia-Pacific Programme of Education for All (APPEAL) on 23 February 1987 following up the recommendation of the Fifth Regional Conference of Ministers of Education in Asia and the Pacific (Bangkok, 1985) and the Twenty-third session of the UNESCO General Conference (1985) has brought continuing education in to a new light.

APPEAL includes continuing education within the overall scheme of education for all, thus APPEAL has attempted to link education with personnel and community development in an interactive and dynamic way, especially through continuing education.

APPEAL has divided continuing education into two main categories. Firstly, continuing education is a programme supportive of the universalization of primary education (UPE) and literacy programmes. As a support of UPE, continuing education has been used as a means to help children complete primary education and/or to ensure that whatever is learned in primary schools is not lost, but instead reinforced. Continuing education is also a means to ensure that neo-literates do not lapse into illiteracy. Actions related to this type of continuing education are already covered in the action areas of UPE and the eradication of illiteracy.

Secondly, there is that type of continuing education which goes beyond UPE and literacy. Conceived as such, the recipients need further functional literacy and education (mainly non-formal) to enhance their skills and competence particularly in job-related activities. It is also intended to enable them to apply their learning to the development of their own personal life and of their community. The modalities of action for the latter are dealt with in this action area.

Continuing education within the context of APPEAL is not just remedial measures to ensure the retention and stabilization of literacy skills. Especially when they are developed in the context of lifelong education and with the purpose of improving the quality of life of the individuals and their collectives, they call for the continuation of learning in a flexible manner, utilizing the recently acquired literacy skills, and for the application of this learning to the larger processes of development. Thus, what is required is to develop programmes of post-literacy and continuing education to fulfil three major goals namely, (i) retention and stabilization of literacy skills, (ii) continuation of learning beyond initial literacy skills, and (iii) application of this learning for improving several aspects of personal, social and vocational life.

The UNESCO Institute for Education, Hamburg, has conducted an international research project followed by a series of regional seminars on post-literacy and continuing education between 1980 to 1985. According to the report of the project, continuing education should be seen in the perspective of lifelong education. The report states:

Literacy, post-literacy and continuing education are a part of a lifelong education continuum, and as such should include the following characteristics:

Totality:	encompassing different stages and structures . . .
Integration:	articulation within the life-space and across the life-span . . .
Flexibility:	multi-modal learning strategies, self-pacing and self-evaluation . . .
Democratization:	equality of access, comparability of achievement . . .[1]

Such a broad framework has several implications for the design and implementation of any programme of post-literacy and continuing education.

Neo-literates tend to relapse into illiteracy if appropriate strategies are not employed to provide opportunities for them to continue learning – not only for the purpose of retaining literacy skills but also as a means of acquiring an adequate level of basic education for development. This reversion to illiteracy occurs not only in the case of adults who acquire literacy through short-duration non-formal programmes, but also with children who drop out of the formal school system prematurely after acquiring temporary literacy. It is therefore urgently necessary to work out ways and means of arresting the phenomenon of reversal by developing basic post-literacy programmes and services. But this is only a part of the total problem of post-literacy and continuing education.

It has now been universally recognized that the learning of literacy skills should be accompanied by the larger developmental goals of improving the overall functionality of individuals and their groups. These goals should include improvement of health, refinement of income-generating and productive skills, and raising social and civic awareness. Thus, educational programmes both for illiterate adults and for out-of-school children, are almost invariably

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1. Dave, R.H. and others. ***Learning strategies for post-literacy and continuing education: a cross-national perspective.*** Hamburg, Unesco Institute for Education, 1985. 269 p.

geared to broader instructional objectives besides literacy which in turn are expected to contribute towards the socio-economic and cultural development of individuals and their communities. But it has been observed that the typical 'single-shot' educational programmes of literacy which are often, of necessity, part-time or of short duration, are basically introductory in nature, and if the intended objectives of socio-economic and other developments linked with the quality of life of poor and backward population are to be adequately served, it is essential that initial literacy programmes are systematically followed up by post-literacy and continuing education, for which appropriate learning strategies should be adopted. These strategies should aim at retention and stabilization of literacy skills; continuation of learning beyond the literacy skills in order to convey adequate basic education; and application of learning for personal, social and vocational development.

Learning strategies of continuing education

1. The learning strategies focused on the above mentioned aims should be flexible and provide alternative approaches to suit individuals and their groups in their local conditions.
2. There should be an increasing degree of independent and self-directed learning as the new literate continues his learning and acquires basic education.
3. The strategies should pay particular attention to certain groups with special needs such as women, youths, tribal populations and out-of-school children.
4. The programmes of literacy and post-literacy learning should be viewed as a continuum of total education aimed at reducing inequality, increasing the degree of democratization in education, and achievement of the larger goals of development associated with the quality of life.
5. Such an education should not only be acquired through the formal education system, but also through the non-formal system and even through informal learning opportunities created by print media as well as non-print media of both modern (radio, TV and video) and traditional types so that the total learning continuum is integrated with the learner's personal, social and vocational domains of life.

SECTION THREE

PLANNING CONTINUING EDUCATION PROGRAMMES IN ASIA AND THE PACIFIC

PLANNING A MAJOR PROGRAMME OF CONTINUING EDUCATION

John Wellings

Mr. John Wellings is at present an Executive Member of the Board of Adult Education in Australia. Prior to this post, Mr. Wellings was an Executive Member to the NSW Board of Adult Education of the Ministry of Education. From 1976 to 1978, he served as Director of the Staff Development Division of the NSW Public Service Board. In 1984, with his leadership, he organized the International Conference on the Administration of Adult Education in Indonesia. In 1985, he served as the Deputy Leader of the Australian Delegation to the 4th World Conference on Adult Education held in UNESCO, Paris.

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What is continuing education?

In the context of APPEAL continuing education refers to learning opportunities for people after they have completed primary education or they have learned literacy skills as an adult. People gain literacy either in school or through a literacy programme, but we could well ask the question 'literacy for what'?

Of course the ability to read and write will help people to cope with many everyday situations – to fill in forms or to read instructions. But these uses in themselves do little to aid in personal, community and national development. Development can only occur when people use their literacy skills to gain new knowledge, to learn new skills and to develop attitudes which are a necessary part of a changing and developing life.

The means of accessing new information by a literate person can be referred to as 'continuing education'. Really then the most important use of literacy is that a person can participate in lifelong learning through continuing education. Continuing education enables people to participate in the economic, social, cultural and political life of his or her society. When change occurs new knowledge is required and it comes from continuing education. Continuing education may be seen as the means by which a person is able to transcend the limitations of his or her environment.

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1. From 'A training programme in continuing education for APPEAL', prepared for the UNESCO/PROAP Regional Workshop of National Coordinators for APPEAL, Chiangmai, Thailand, 19-29 August 1987. 37 pp.

Continuing education

Without continuing education opportunities, primary education or adult literacy are of little value.

It is probably important at this point to clear up some confusion which exists about names or terminology. Adult education and non-formal education are other names that are commonly used for learning opportunities for adults outside formal institutions. For our purposes adult or non-formal education may be seen to have two parts:

1. Adult literacy; and
2. Continuing education.

The sort of objectives that can be achieved through continuing education include:

a) learning about nutrition and how to improve health;
b) learning about improved agricultural practices, animal husbandry and food storage;
c) learning to improve productivity and income, or alternative skills and occupations;
d) learning about marketing, purchasing, finances and economic principles;
e) learning to improve relationships and about parenting;
f) learning about community and political processes;
g) understanding the learning processes which children are undertaking at school;
h) understanding ways to improve housing and the quality of life; and
i) increasing the range of cultural activities in which to participate.

Unlike primary, secondary and tertiary education, no government can provide a simple system of continuing education provision. Continuing education will involve a large number of government and non-government agencies in achieving a balanced programme. Much continuing education will be in the form of self-directed learning where agencies provide opportunities for learning but there is no set curriculum or formal teaching. However a good continuing education programme will include opportunities for adults to study in classroom type situations also. The range of learning situations and methods will be very wide indeed in continuing education.

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There are other differences between formal education for young persons and continuing education for adults. Some of these are:

a) Adults have a sense of personal responsibility and do not like to be treated like children in a learning situation.

b) Adults have a sense of personal responsibility and do not like to be treated like children in a learning situations.

c) Because education is not compulsory for adults they will only take part in learning programmes when they are seen to be directly relevant to their lives.

d) An adult wants to set his or her own objectives for learning and will know whether these are being achieved and when he or she has learned enough for the present;

e) Because they have other responsibilities, adults cannot normally be available for a large part of each day to take part in education programmes.

For these reasons an adult educator needs different skills from an educator of children. He or she needs to be a facilitator of learning rather than a teacher. The adult educator needs to be a motivator and guide to information.

There is another difference between continuing education and children's education — in fact between continuing education and most other forms of education. This is why continuing education can never be measured very precisely. While it is possible to count school attendances, the percentage of literate adults or enrolments of adults in formal institutions, it is very difficult to make meaningful statements about the extent of continuing education. It may be useful to undertake some sample surveys. It is valuable to know what opportunities exist for continuing education, but the final test will be whether individuals, communities and the whole nation can be seen to be developing.

Analysing and describing continuing education

Experience has shown that in all countries continuing education will be provided in many different ways. Conversely adults seek many different ways to learn.

3/Three

Continuing education

One of the important skills for a planner of continuing education is to be able to understand and analyse the range of ways which exist in a particular situation for adults to learn. The administrator will then be able to make provision for the types of learning situations which are missing, or could be used to advantage in that situation.

It is important to realize that many of the learning opportunities which exist in a community may not be identified by either the providers or the recipients as continuing education. For instance programmes identified as 'health programmes' may really be an important part of the continuing education provision. In a similar way other continuing education may not readily be identified because of its very informal nature. Radio programmes, village notice boards and activities of women's organizations usually form an important part of the continuing education provision of a community.

Continuing education programmes range from those where an authority determines that people will participate in them to the other extreme where people seek information for themselves, unguided or unaided by anyone else. In fact these can be seen as extremes along a continuum with numerous alternatives in between. The following diagram demonstrates this as a straight line continuum.

Authority enforces participation	Mass media campaigns	Programme planned with participants	Learning facilities provided	People learn unaided
Authoritarian				Laissez-faire

In the extreme position at the left of the continuum, people are forced to attend programmes. This situation is not uncommon, particularly for employees in government, industry and commerce. The teacher or authority determines the learning objectives and curriculum. Near to this are continuing education campaigns using the mass media. A person has the right to turn the radio off or close the newspaper, but information is being thrust at all people through the mass media.

At the other end of the continuum is a situation where people gain information through their own efforts and unaided by anyone else. Nearby is a situation where facilities are provided in libraries or in courses, but people access information only as they choose to.

In the middle of the continuum is something of a democratic learning situation. Facilities and facilitators are provided, people are encouraged to take part, and the objectives are set in consultation between the authorities and the participants. This is one of the most desirable situations for continuing education. Later discussions about planning and conducting major continuing education programmes talk about education and learning in the democratic centre of the continuum.

It is important to remember that a good, balanced national programme of continuing education will include learning opportunities from all parts of this continuum.

The educational planner will readily see the need for all types of learning opportunities in continuing education to meet a wide range of learning needs and situations.

Planning the programme

Sometimes it will be appropriate to conduct a continuing education programme on a large scale – perhaps even across a whole nation. Considered here are the main steps which should be taken to plan and implement a large scale programme of continuing education. Similar steps would be taken for planning a local programme as well, although this section will concentrate on the procedures for a major programme.

1. **Identification of the target groups.** A target group may be a particular social, demographic or geographic group. The following list gives some examples of possible target groups for continuing education programmes;

people who live in villages
rural youth
rice growers
female parents
out of school youth
an ethnic minority
low income families
women of childbearing age
families without adequate housing.

2. **Assessment of the learners' needs.** As well as the needs of the individual learners, the needs of the society and of the community must also be considered. There will be little motivation for learning unless the participants realize that the educational programme is related to needs that they identify themselves. On the other hand it will be a waste of resources to offer a programme if it does not relate to real individual as well as societal needs. Needs identification is the basis for developing objectives.

3. **Development of objectives.** Learning objectives are best expressed in terms of behaviour which might be expected at the conclusion of the programme. There are three types of outcomes from an educational programme and objectives can be written in terms of these:

Knowledge – facts or information to be gained;
Skills – performance abilities to be gained;
Attitudes – new or different ways of thinking about a situation.

Learning objectives often involve all three types of learning. Objectives should be determined in relation to the number or proportion of participants successfully completing the programme.

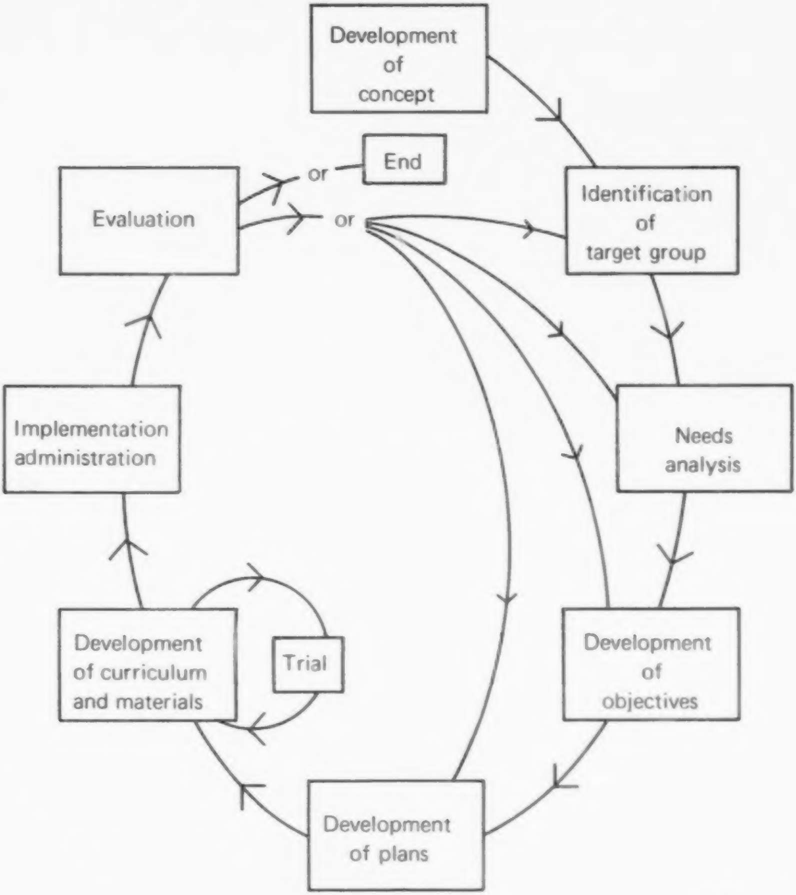
Case Study No. 1 at the end of Section Three describes some ways of writing learning objectives.

4. **Development of the plan.** At this stage the co-ordinator or committee responsible for the programme draws up the plan by which the programme will proceed.

5. **Development of curriculum and selection of training methods.** This part of the planning process will normally be the task of the educational specialist to plan the curriculum based on his or her training and experience. It is important to keep in mind that there is a wide range of options in conducting continuing education programmes and there is no standard duration for a course or standard group size. The curriculum for a continuing education course will nearly always be much shorter and simpler that the curriculum for a formal education course.

The training method to be used in any particular situation should be determined primarily by the educational objective. Where knowledge is to be gained then lectures and demonstrations, supported by visual aids, is usually the most effective method. Skills can usually only be acquired after demonstration and lots of practice under supervision. Attitudes are most easily changed or acquired in a discussion group situation. In a programme for teaching the use of a new food source it may be appropriate to explain the elements of nutrition in an illustrated lecture; demonstrations in the preparation, cooking and serving the new food would be followed by practice sessions; but acceptance of the new food involves attitude change and would best be achieved through discussion groups.

Development of a Continuing Education Programme


Development of concept
Identification of target group
Needs analysis
Development of objectives
Development of plans
Development of curriculum and materials
Trial
Implementation administration
Evaluation
or
End
or

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Because adults are not normally compelled to take part in an educational programme, the adult educator will need skills and hard work to make the programme successful.

Before a particular curriculum and set of training methods is implemented for a programme it is most desirable to conduct a trial or pilot programme. Trialling is based on a few learning groups with careful evaluation being carried out. This may indicate the need to modify the curriculum or the training methods. Without this trialling there could be a great waste of resources or an ineffective programme.

6. **Management of the programme and budget.** A large scale continuing education programme will need administrators and leaders with skills in management and co-ordination of the various parts of the programme. Planning and organizing will involve an understanding of the resources required and how these can be used most effectively.

An administrator may adopt a leadership style which is authoritarian, where decisions are made by the administrator and communicated to the operators and teachers. A more successful style in an education programme for adults is a participatory one in which the leaders at various levels share in the decision making.

Teachers and co-ordinators working in a participative organization are more likely to implement a participative approach to teaching.

The budget needed will depend on many factors including the teaching methods adopted, the length of the programme and the number of participants to be involved.

7. **Evaluation.** The main purpose of evaluation is to determine whether the programme has been successful. The basis of evaluation in a major continuing education programme will normally be to decide whether the objectives have been achieved.

Determination of needs

It is quite possible to misunderstand the real needs of people or a community when planning a continuing education programme. This is illustrated in Case Study, No. 2 at the end of Section Three. The critical factor in education, particularly continuing education which is generally voluntary, is the accurate determination of needs.

The task of determining the needs of people or communities may be a very complex one. First, the educator and the learner need to differentiate between 'what is', 'what could be' and 'what should be'. In the case study the learners need to agree with the educators that having too many children is a problem, they have to know about family planning and they have to know about other options for care of the aged. They also have to negotiate about the realistic outcomes that can be expected or should occur. This pre-analysis of needs is a necessary first step.

Four different types of needs may be described:

1. Normative need – what experts believe is needed;
2. Felt need – what people know that they want;
3. Expressed need – this is a felt need turned into action; and
4. Comparative need – the measurement of one need compared with another.

These needs can be demonstrated in the case study. The need for family planning as perceived by the planners is a normative need. The need for security in old age is a felt need. It may have been more readily identified if it had been an expressed need. The comparative need for security in old age was greater than the need for family planning. A continuing education programme is likely to fail if needs are not accurately assessed, but where there is agreement on what is needed there is every chance of a successful programme.

Continuing education is a co-operative act between the planners, educators and learners. The best means of achieving agreement on needs is to involve the learners in the needs assessment stage of programme planning.

There are many strategies for analysing needs and it is usually wise to use more than one method for a particular programme. The methods of needs identification may be grouped into traditional and non-traditional methods.

Traditional methods of needs assessment have been used by planners for a long time. They can be divided into unobtrusive and obtrusive methods.

Unobtrusive methods

Observation
Studying media reports

Records, official reports
Work samples

With unobtrusive methods the planners examine samples of work, community life or documentation and make inferences about needs without too much disruption to the day-to-day activities of the target group. The advantages of these methods include minimizing concern for a sensitive group, and obtaining quick results at low cost. The disadvantages are a lack of value weighting and a lack of involvement of the learners.

Obtrusive methods

Questionnaires
Consultations
Interviews
Skill tests

Obtrusive methods require the planners to involve the learners in gathering information about their needs and this is the main advantage of these methods. The disadvantages include extensive preparation involving time and expenditure. The participants may be disturbed or their expectations raised inappropriately.

The skilled continuing education specialist will be able to use a number of non-traditional methods to assess needs. The important thing about these methods is that they are able to establish value and priorities on the needs.

Non-traditional methods

Futures searches
Delphi probes
Critical incident analyses
Village theatre discussions
Nominal group techniques

The advantages of these non-traditional methods are that there is opportunity to negotiate, ownership by the learners and weightings and priorities are established. The disadvantages are that extensive lead time is required, they may prove more expensive and skilled leaders are required.

In summary it can be pointed out that needs analysis is essential for successful programmes. Needs analysis looks at gaps and expectations. Needs can be defined in terms of normative, felt, expressed or comparative needs. Needs should be determined co-operatively by the planners and learners. There is a range of both traditional and non-traditional methods for identifying needs.

The complexity of need identification points to the importance of having proper training for planners of continuing education.

The roles of government

Continuing education involves the efforts of many sections of the community. Non-government organizations, schools, colleges, universities, mass media and government.

The first role of government may be in providing a constitutional or legislative basis for continuing education. Some countries ensure the right of adults to education through their Constitutions. More commonly governments legislate for continuing education through Acts of Parliament that establish agencies to co-ordinate continuing education, to provide funds or to authorize government agencies to conduct continuing education programmes. However governments may have roles in continuing education without legislative provision.

Within the Education Ministries there should be some structure for the planning and co-ordination of continuing education. In some countries in the Asia-Pacific region there is now a Department of Non-formal Education. Others have a small specialist unit or these roles may be carried out by those with more general responsibilities in education.

Planning for continuing education will involve a general assessment of needs in terms of democratic distribution, identification and prioritizing of needs which may be met by continuing education programmes, the types of agencies which may be involved and the resources which will be necessary. The role of government in co-ordination is discussed in a separate chapter.

Governments usually give several Ministries responsibility for providing continuing education. Health and Agriculture Ministries invariably have continuing education programmes and there may be others also. In addition there are usually sections within Education Ministries which actually conduct continuing education programmes. When agencies with the Education Ministries have this responsibility they usually conduct a wide range of programmes depending on whatever needs exist in the country which are not being met by other agencies.

When government agencies conduct continuing education programmes they have the advantage of being under the direct control of government and are therefore able to implement government priorities. The government can ensure proper educational standards. However the government programmes may lack community involvement and voluntary efforts. Governments usually need to implement uniform programmes and may therefore not necessarily meet the needs of minority groups or particular localities.

Non-government agencies invariably play an important role in providing continuing education in any country. Government will have a role in supporting these agencies when their programmes contribute to meeting government objectives. Non-government agencies usually have a high degree of flexibility and may be very responsive to local needs and conditions. In addition to a broad co-ordination role, governments may provide guidance and encouragement to the agencies as well as direct financial help. It will usually be economically sound to assist non-government agencies because the high degree of voluntary commitment will make this a less expensive alternative to maintaining government agencies.

Another important role for government in continuing education is to provide overall support for the total system. This will include the provision of training for continuing educators whether they work in government or non-government organizations. Research to support and develop continuing education will need to be supported by government whether this is undertaken by government agencies, universities, research institutes or other organizations. Government may need to establish and maintain a data-base of continuing education provision.

Using local schools

Schools which have been established for children may be a valuable resource for providing continuing education for adults.

It is common to use schools in the evening for adult classes. As well as literacy, numeracy and other basic education classes, courses can be offered that will help people gain new knowledge and develop skills to adjust to change and to take up new opportunities.

Instruction in evening classes is often provided by the day school teachers, but other teachers or special tutors may come in to conduct the courses. The administration may be by the school authorities, but a special authority or community organization may conduct the adult programme.

There are some obvious limitations to using school facilities for adult programmes. The furniture is made for young children and may be quite unsuitable for adults. However adults often do cope with the size difference. Adults that have unpleasant memories of being at school will not be anxious to return there for further study.

Less obvious is the fact that teachers trained to teach children may not be equipped for teaching adults. Special training is usually necessary, but as the teachers have an understanding of learning principles they will not usually need an extensive programme to adjust to teaching adults. Teachers of children will need to learn to treat adult students as partners in learning. They need to allow adults to relate to and build on their life experiences. They need to ensure that the courses are immediately relevant to life.

In some countries schools will allow adults to enrol in normal secondary classes. This can be a most effective form of continuing education, but of course is only possible where spare capacity exists in secondary schools. Experience has shown that adults do not disrupt these classes as may at first be thought. When adults are enrolled in secondary classes there are fewer disciplinary problems in the school. They serve as a motivational factor for young students. No significant changes to the curriculum or teaching style are usually necessary as adults do not expect changes to be made for them in this situation.

The 'community school' is a concept that has developed in some countries. This involves more than giving adults access to classes. Community education encourages maximum use of schools facilities by the community, study and assistance in the solution of community problems, co-operation among agencies serving the community, community planning and reinforcing the family unit through shared activities. Courses for adults are usually conducted in the evening or at weekends, but the programmes for the whole community are seen as being part of the one large educational system. Adults often act as resource people for children's classes.

Community schools tend to act as a resource for the whole community with at least one room available for community use for various meetings and learning groups. They usually have a reading centre or library for the community. Invariably a community school will have greater involvement of the community in the management of the school, and that can be rather threatening to authoritarian leadership.

Here are some roles that schools may play in continuing education. They may:

1. House a library or reading centre for the community to use;
2. Provide rooms and other learning resources for continuing education organized by other agencies;
3. Organize classes to meet locally identified needs for adults and out-of-school youth;
4. Admit adults to secondary classes; and
5. Present education programmes to adults as part of a district, provincial or nation wide continuing education programme.

The roles of non-government agencies

It is probably true that in every country there are non-government organizations (NGOs) involved in the provision of continuing education. In many countries these will conduct more continuing education activities than the government agencies. Those responsible for the planning and co-ordination of continuing education need to accept both the inevitability of non-government organizations and the contribution that these agencies can make to the overall programme.

Non-government agencies are often referred to as 'voluntary' agencies because they operate on the freely offered services of volunteers. However it is probably a more useful description to refer to them as non-government agencies as this contrasts with government agencies.

Non-government agencies can range in size from large national (or even international) organizations to small local community groups. Sometimes there are similar small groups in many different communities, and this is then referred to as a 'movement'.

Non-government agencies are invariably formed for some specific purpose. They will have some definite reason for existing and have definite objectives. Here are some of the sorts of non-government organizations that are likely to be found conducting continuing education programmes:

a) political organizations;
b) religious organizations;
c) commercial organizations;
d) professional groups (as a community service);
e) groups concerned with preserving arts, crafts, history, etc; and
f) community learning groups.

Those agencies with a strong philosophic or ideological base, such as political or religious organizations, are likely to be providing continuing education programmes to extend their own ideas, beliefs and values. Commercial organizations may exist mainly to make a profit from the courses or from increased sales because of the courses.

Professional groups may have particular subjects or target groups which they wish to promote or support. For instance a professional women's group may provide learning opportunities for groups of disadvantaged women. Organizations that foster history, arts, crafts or culture are usually concerned specifically with preserving or developing those specific areas of interest, although they need not have a strong ideological base.

Local community learning groups are often concerned with just helping people who have particular learning needs. In adult literacy programmes there are usually groups of volunteers who come together to assist. Similarly there may be local community groups involved in developing continuing education. Sometimes government agencies responsible for implementing large scale continuing education programmes can encourage the formation of voluntary groups to assist in those programmes.

Government authorities responsible for continuing education have to work closely with non-government organizations. They will make a significant provision and therefore must be considered in any plans for co-ordination and development.

Non-government organizations may be able to assist in the implementation of government priorities for continuing education. Those organizations with a strong ideological base will be less likely to be useful in this regard, while those with a strong desire to assist people in the community may be most valuable. Governments may see it appropriate to provide money to NGOs for continuing education. It seems logical and reasonable that a government should provide funds to those agencies that are assisting in achieving government objectives and would assist them to the extent that they are achieving those objectives.

It is generally consistent with the principles of freedom of speech and of assembly that there will be some NGOs which exist to teach their own ideologies and beliefs. These agencies may contribute little to the overall national programme of continuing education for development.

Options for co-ordination of continuing education

Because many different agencies will be involved in providing continuing education, it is most desirable to have some co-ordination mechanism. Without co-ordination among the various providers of continuing education it is impossible to develop a national planned provision, and impossible to link into the total objectives of APPEAL. The educational agencies themselves generally seek to have co-ordination as it takes away many insecurities and avoids wasted efforts.

Co-ordination may mean different things to different people. This is because there are many options available. In fact we can see these options along a continuum in which total authority is exercised at one end and a "laissez-faire" system at the other.

Authority determines	Authority consults then determines	Authority convenes agencies decide	Agencies convene own meetings	No co-ordination

Co-ordination continuum

In the diagram a few major styles are identified to illustrate the direction of the continuum. Of course many intermediate styles are possible.

If a government decides to appoint some form of co-ordination mechanism then many options are possible. Some are listed below. They represent different situations along the continuum from left to right.

a) The government appoints a person who determines which agencies should conduct programmes and informs them of their opportunities and responsibilities. Such a system would require some sort of police force to enforce it.

b) The government appoints a committee representing a variety of points of view to determine the programmes which should be offered and the agencies which may be involved. Otherwise this is similar to situation (a).

c) The committee consults individually with providing agencies and then decides which ones should conduct programmes. Sanctions or other pressures would be necessary to implement the decisions.

d) The committee consults individually with providing agencies and then prepares a recommended plan. It does not attempt to enforce its decisions, but relies on personal pressures.

e) The committee consults with groups of providing agencies and then prepares a plan. The interaction between the agencies may be an important part of the development of the plan and may serve to ensure that the agencies adhere to the plan.

f) The government committee convenes a meeting of agencies and allows them to work out who should conduct programmes. The priorities of government may be communicated to the meeting, but any plan is developed by the agencies themselves.

g) If no government authority for co-ordination exists, then the agencies themselves can convene an inter-agency meeting to decide who will conduct various programmes. The agencies simply undertake to work co-operatively.

It is not possible to say which is the best method of co-ordination. The predominant decision making style of the country will be an important factor. Generally the more authoritarian mechanisms will be appropriate in countries which have authoritarian styles of government and where resources for continuing education are most limited. In the more developed countries more democratic styles of co-ordination will be appropriate.

There will need to be co-ordination at different levels in a country. The co-ordination effected at national level will relate to principles and influencing national agencies. There will need to be provincial, district, and even local levels of co-ordination depending on the size and population of the country. The lowest level or smallest unit of co-ordination will be at the level where it is possible to know all the agencies involved.

Co-ordination need not be expensive. It may save significant resources from being wasted by duplication. It will ensure that available resources are put to the best use.

Evaluation of programmes

Evaluation in the context of a continuing education programme refers particularly to 'the process of determining to what extent the educational objectives are actually being realized'. In some circumstances evaluation could refer to 'a systematic investigation to assess the worth of a programme' or 'the systematic gathering of information about educational objectives with a view to bringing about improvement'.

In every programme there will be some degree of evaluation which occurs continually and informally. However this section discussed the formal process of evaluation, a process which should be as objective as possible.

There are two basic categories of evaluation: summative and formative. A summative evaluation generally occurs at the completion of a programme, and measures its outcomes, and provides advice about improvements in strategies for other programmes. A formative evaluation generally occurs while a programme is still running, and provides information about the way that programme is functioning, and the progress toward meeting the objectives of the programme.

It is important to note that there is no single method for carrying out an evaluation. Each case is unique. It also needs to be noted that the outcome of an evaluation will be determined by factors such as who requests the evaluation, what has to be evaluated, who does the evaluation, why an evaluation is sought and what standards are used to determine success. An evaluation is never completely objective and the outcomes will be influenced by these sorts of factors. We need to keep in mind what the evaluator may have been trying to achieve.

Things that could be measured in an evaluation. Here is a list of the things that could be measured when an evaluation is to be carried out in relation to a continuing education programme.

a) Assessment of the extent to which the educational objectives have been achieved. It is most desirable that objectives are set in a manner which enables them to be assessed.

b) Assessment of the practical outcome of the programme. A population education programme may best be evaluated by comparing the birth rates before and after the programme. An agricultural extension programme may be assessed in terms of increased crop production. A health education programme may be said to be successful if the death rate is reduced.

c) Assessment of the student outcomes.

d) Quality and quantity of the instructional materials used.

e) Quality of teaching.

f) Costs per student compared with other programmes.

g) Value to participants, experts and other community members.

h) Unanticipated outcomes.

i) Descriptions of innovative approaches.

j) Descriptions of alternatives.

k) Descriptions of events or outcomes if the programme were to be discontinued.

l) An assessment of the processes used (e.g. is it participatory)?

m) An assessment of the relevance of plans.

n) An assessment of its cultural relevance.

Criteria for evaluation. Evaluation requires the use of judgement and the criteria adopted will vary. Wherever possible evaluators should use external criteria for comparison. These include standards set by experts, research or standard practice; the needs of the authority responsible for or funding the programme; norms from comparative projects.

There are a number of methods of collecting data for evaluation. These include: statistics collection; case studies; experimental studies; questionnaires; individual participant interviews; group interviews; collection of expert opinion; audio or video recordings; and participant diaries. It is important to choose the appropriate method or set of methods for a particular situation to ensure an effective evaluation. Continuing education specialists are trained in a variety of enquiry methods. Evaluation must be done carefully with due regard to the audience in choosing the appropriate method to use for evaluation.

There are several ways of reporting on an evaluation study. The method of enquiry will determine the style of the report. Obviously if a pencil and paper method is used to collect data it would not be very appropriate to produce a television report as the visual impact of the programme would be lost. The audience for whom the report is prepared will also determine the style or manner of reporting.

Reports should be factual, ethical, interesting, useful, legal and available. Where possible reports should be compiled in negotiation with those being evaluated, and when completed should be available to them.

In summary it can be noted that:

a) Evaluation is an ongoing formal and informal process;

b) Evaluation implies measurement and judgement;

c) Evaluations are either summative or formative;

d) Evaluation is never entirely objective and is influenced by the person carrying out the evaluation and the reasons for the evaluation;

e) Everything in a programme can be evaluated;

f) External criteria should be used where possible in evaluation;

g) Methods of enquiry for evaluation are numerous and continuing education specialists should be proficient in many methods;

h) Evaluation reports should be made available to those being evaluated.

CASE STUDY No. 1

A continuing education programme related to dysentery control

This is a theoretical educational programme to assist in the control of dysentery in young children.

Target group. Parents of young children in villages where the mortality rate from dysentery is high.

Assessment of learners' needs. In the case that has been chosen it is probable that the people in the target group will have accepted that the problem exists. However they may not have identified the nature of the problem and may think of it in terms of medicine when general hygiene or other factors may be equally, or more, important. Talking with and observing a sample of families will help identify the factors associated with the problem. Health professionals would need to be involved in this stage of the programme.

Development of objectives. Possible objectives would be:

The families at risk who have taken part in the programme will:

a) Understand the cause of dysentery and how it is spread;

b) Understand the ways of reducing the risk of contracting dysentery;

c) Be competent in administering the appropriate medical treatment;

d) Be committed to reduction of risk factors in the home and community;

e) Be committed to administering treatment when appropriate.

It may readily be seen that (a) and (b) above involve the acquisition of knowledge, (c) involves learning a skill and (d) and (e) are concerned with attitude change.

Development of the plan of operation. It may be decided that in the initial year of the programme effort will be concentrated on two provinces and to work with 100 villages in each of these. It is planned to recruit sufficient tutors to lead the learning in the villages with one supervisor or co-ordinator for each ten tutors. Detailed planning will proceed after the development of curriculum and selection of training methods.

Development of curriculum and selection of training methods. The following plan involving five meetings each of two hours (totalling ten hours of learning time) might be developed with community meetings being convened by village leaders or existing community agencies.

a) Initial meeting for group to identify the problem for themselves and be committed to the programme.

b) Presentation of illustrated lecture on causes of dysentery and treatment.

c) Demonstration and practice by participants of preparing and administering medicines. It is likely that smaller groups will be needed for this session.

d) Discussion to achieve commitment to implementing the methods.

e) Follow-up meeting to reinforce learning and evaluate success.

It will be necessary at this stage to conduct a pilot programme with a few groups with rigid evaluation to see if this learning programme is achieving the expected outcomes. On the basis of this trial it may be necessary to modify the sessions.

Programme management and budget. As the programme will involve five visits to each group by a teacher, the manager of the total programme will need to plan and organize:

a) The number of tutors required;
b) Supervisors or co-ordinators for groups of tutors or regions;
c) Plan of operation;
d) Recruitment and/or training of co-ordinators and tutors;
e) Provision of training aids and other resources;
f) Budget required.

It often happens that the budget is the limiting factor in implementing any programme. If the financial resources are not available it may be necessary to review the objectives in terms of the level of achievement, or make other adjustments.

Evaluation. In terms of the objectives which are established, a possible set of evaluation techniques may include:

a) Recording the number of participants.
b) Asking the participants at the follow-up session how many have implemented the procedures already.
c) Visiting a sample of participants six months after the programme is complete to measure the extent of implementation.
d) Measuring the child mortality rate in the target area before and after the programme.

CASE STUDY No. 2

Determining needs

The government agencies in a small country, noting how dramatically the population was growing and how rapidly the population demands were eroding national resources, drew experts together to tackle the problem. They decided that the people needed a population education programme to learn about fertility control. They arranged for a continuing education programme to take information to all the villages. The villagers listened politely and when tested knew all the technical information about birth control. However some years after the programme was completed, the evaluation showed that the rate of population increase had not fallen.

Later, in consultation with the villagers involved, it was found that their primary need was for care in old age and that children were perceived as a means of achieving such care. A programme aimed at achieving alternative care and health for the aged needed to be linked with the programme for fertility control.

The above case study illustrates many of the problems associated with needs analysis. If people have basic needs unfilled for such things as food, shelter, freedom from danger and security they will not be able to work at learning how to solve higher level or less immediate needs. Unless planners correctly determine needs a programme is usually doomed to failure.

SECTION FOUR

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Number 28, September 1987

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ABOUT THE BULLETIN

The Bulletin was established in 1966, then published twice annually from 1967 to 1972. It is now an annual publication. Special issues were published in January and December 1982. Each issue contains a bibliographical supplement. Copies of Numbers 21, 22, 24, 25 and 26 of the Bulletin, and the Special Issues are still available. All previous issues are out of print but may be consulted in libraries.

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